

# THE SCHOOL REVIEW

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## EDUCATIONAL NEWS AND EDITORIAL COMMENT

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### THE PROBLEM OF CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT

ATTACK and counterattack with respect to a variety of issues is an important characteristic of the content of many of the professional journals. It is an important characteristic, since it represents in operation one of the ideals that underlie our cultural heritage. If we, as a people, have a genuine belief in the use of intelligence as the method of solving our problems, then a necessary procedure is that of allowing the issues to be formulated publicly, to be argued as cogently as possible by all concerned, and to be decided eventually on the basis of a reasoned consideration of all the evidence that can be turned up.

The managing editor of a journal, who may be expected to glance at least occasionally at the circulation figures, also understands that controversy—provided that it is carried on without too much name-calling—

may stimulate his readers and perhaps result in a fair amount of word-of-mouth advertising of the journal. Let the managing editor encourage and provide an opportunity for the airing of these controversies. He does much service. Let the reader, however, also make his contribution.

What appears to be a perennial argument goes on over the books that are to be read and studied by students. "Are these American history textbooks subversive?" "Should comic books be banned?" "Is there too much about sex in the biology textbook?" "Should we abandon the 'classics' in our schools?" These are familiar questions, and it is not surprising to find them raised in our journals.

In the February, 1947, issue of the *Clearing House*, Philip R. Jenkins, teacher of English in the Marshall High School at Rochester, New York, proposed that English classes spend less time on the classics and more on

materials dealing with modern problems. The counterattack followed in the September issue with an article, "No Retreat from the Classics," written by Sally Anne Crawford, teacher of English in the Webb City (Missouri) High School. The issue is joined. Another "battle of the books" is on.

In California the state-wide adoption of some of the *Building America* publications as supplementary textbooks has been vigorously opposed by some persons and vigorously defended by others. The search for the subversive goes on outside as well as inside congressional halls.

Even though the reader is not a teacher of English or a resident of California, he has an obligation to react critically to such debates. That critical reaction will enable him to sort out and to identify the points of contention and, consequently, will make it possible for him both to contribute to the evidence that is needed for a rational solution of the problem and to aid in the reasoned interpretation of that evidence. One way of looking at such controversies is to regard them as posing the problem of curriculum development. This view may sharpen the issues and thus contribute, in a small way, to the eventual resolution of the controversy.

The problem of curriculum development may be seen as a twofold one: determining the purposes or objectives of the school and selecting the means which will best accomplish these purposes. It seems likely that all the specific questions which are asked

in establishing and operating a school can, ultimately, be phrased as posing both of these problems. If *Building America* or the works of Shakespeare are to be used as teaching materials, that decision should reflect a clear-cut specification of certain purposes of the school and a reasonable expectation, based on evidence, that these materials will aid markedly in accomplishing those purposes. If Shakespeare or *Building America* has been decided against in favor of other materials, then the proposition applies to the materials that are to be used.

This view of the curriculum problem as a twofold one points up issues. For example, it suggests clearly that there is a certain logical priority of the two problems, and consequently it enables the reader to determine whether the disputants have argued first things first. The argument over the classics, mentioned above, indicates that Mr. Jenkins and Mrs. Crawford cannot see eye to eye on the purposes of the English class. One stresses the understanding of, and the ability to deal with, modern problems; the other stresses the understanding and appreciation of "the great poetry and literature of past and present generations." The authors have somewhat different concepts of what the product of English-teaching should be. So long as they cannot agree at the level of purpose, their recommendations of means would be expected to be different. If they did agree at the level of purpose, then a debate over materials would be little more than an interesting example of rhetoric. If there is no con-

troversy over what it is we expect the school to accomplish, then the question of the means to be used can be answered readily by the obvious method of trying them out and letting the facts speak.

Helping to determine the purposes of the school constitutes a major task for all teachers and all administrators. The methods used in arriving at these decisions are important in determining what the decisions are likely to be. The so-called "child-centered" school is likely to evolve its concept of purposes by placing the many facts and generalizations regarding the growth and development of human beings as a kind of core or center of consideration. The "community-centered" school is likely to take as this core the nature of society and its many evolving problems. As its foundation, the so-called "academic" school is likely to fasten on the many potentialities inherent in the content and discipline of bodies of knowledge. These distinctions, of course, merely represent differences in emphases. The individual, the society, and the bodies of knowledge—all coexist and are interrelated. The differences in emphases, however, are real and can be recognized within schools and among schools.

A sensible method of arriving at a determination of the purposes of the school would seem to be one that considered and attempted to integrate these three sources of ideas regarding objectives or purposes. The reader who is aware of these sources can help to mediate debates at this level. He can, for example, point out to his war-

ring colleagues the sources of the values that are being attacked and defended, and he can suggest the obvious procedure of developing new values that stem from consideration of all the sources. This procedure is not so much compromise as reintegration, and consequently it can produce more than an armistice.

The role of research in education is most commonly thought of as that of helping to answer the question of the best means to be used. The lecture versus a discussion, whole versus part learning, a film versus a book, pupil-teacher planning versus teacher planning—these are familiar questions that research attempts to answer. Research or study can, however, play important roles in other ways. Presumably the objectives or purposes of education should be realistic in the sense that they take account of the known potentialities of students. Determining these potentialities is a matter for research; the past accomplishments of students are not necessarily infallible indexes of potentialities. The sources of the ideas regarding objectives need to be expanded and deepened. Again, research and study can contribute by exploring the potentialities of society and of the knowledges and disciplines that man has developed, as well as the potentialities of the individual. Furthermore, the problem of establishing both the methods of reaching concepts of values on which to ground a system of education and the probable consequences of using those methods calls for study and research. Dewey,

in *Problems of Men*, reprints a number of articles under the heading "Value and Thought." At one point he asks:

Is the scientific method of inquiry, in its broad sense, applicable in determination of judgments and/or propositions in the way of valuations or appraisals? Or is there something inherent in the nature of values as subject matter that precludes the application of such method?

The first question Dewey answers "Yes"; the second, "No." Dewey's view is that values are *not* biases "of such intensity of exclusiveness as to be unmodifiable by any possible consideration of grounds and consequences." The scientific study of "grounds and consequences" provides the method for modifying values. Research and study can lead to better value judgments as well as better ways of attaining the purposes reflected by those value judgments.

An important aspect of Dewey's view is the specification of the study of the consequences of accepting any particular value or pattern of values, as well as the study of the grounds for the values. The reader can make an important contribution, then, when he brings to the consideration of a controversy, not only an awareness of the kinds of educational values that are being upheld or attacked and their sources, but also a knowledge of what the results of holding those values have been and are likely to be. The reader's direct experience within the classroom can provide some, but not all, of the evidence. The integration of that direct experience with the evidence that others can cite or have

cited is necessary if this knowledge of results is to have more than a restricted and local validity.

The task of helping formulate the purposes of the school thus implies the task of evaluating the effects of the school. Evaluation, in turn, implies the re-examination and reformulation of purposes. Modified purposes demand further evaluation, and so on. Emphasis on the formulation of purposes and the evaluation of results is useful in order that the problem of curriculum development may be grasped as an integrated and internally consistent set of activities which has no one specific starting-point or end. Choice of the means to be used—the resources that are needed, the way in which the school is to be organized, the teachers to be employed, and the methods that the teachers are to use—is an activity that is part of the total cycle or spiral of activity. Such choice is guided both by the intentions that are made clear in formulating purposes and by the findings that result from a study of effects.

Seen in this context, a debate over materials assumes a seriousness and a stature that the mere advancing of personal preferences cannot have. It is the reader who must often supply the context.

*A problem of curriculum design* One of the problems of curriculum design that deserves extensive consideration by secondary-school staffs is the integration of the experiences planned for students. One method—and that very common—of



attempting to achieve integration has made use of principles of organization within subject-matter fields. Within the field of chemistry, for example, the learning experiences of students have often been planned so as to move from experiences with elements to experiences with simple compounds and then to experiences with the more complex materials such as the compounds of organic chemistry. Within the field of history, to cite another type of organizing principle, students have often been expected to move from a vicarious experiencing of the earliest times up through the present. A reversal of this procedure that begins with today and moves back along the time dimension to origins of present-day phenomena illustrates a variant of this organizing principle. Another method of introducing sequential order into students' experiences has been prompted by studies of child and adolescent development. The concept of developmental tasks, for example, states a general proposition regarding order or sequence of experiences that may be used to organize teaching activities.

Still other methods have been proposed. The community-centered school may take the community as a model of organization and reflect, in the learning experiences offered students, aspects or activities of the community. Sequential integration may be achieved by expanding the idea of community from that of a restricted, local section to that of an all-embracing, world-wide area. The problem approach may be the key to

such organization. Both a concept of a hierarchy of problems and a concept of the logical steps or stages of method for solving problems may enter into determining the sequence of students' experiences.

Sequential organization, however, constitutes only one part of the problem of the integration of students' learning experiences. Integration must take place across the time dimension as well as along it. Probably the secondary schools have been more aware of the problem of sequence than of the problem of achieving this horizontal integration. The departmental organization that has characterized the majority of secondary schools tends to emphasize the importance of the problem of sequence at the expense of the problem of horizontal integration. The planning of an English curriculum or a mathematics curriculum or a social-studies curriculum immediately poses the problem of sequence. Planning such a curriculum, however, may never raise the problem of horizontal integration. Each department might, in theory—and probably has, in practice—plan its curriculum without reference to the kinds of experiences that students were to be given outside the particular subject field. The subject-matter “compartmentalization” of the secondary school has often been criticized. One of these criticisms, in essence, is that such an organization of a school may not provide adequately for this horizontal integration.

A number of suggestions for achieving such integration in the secondary school have been made. Courses have

been combined or correlated or integrated. The home room has been assigned the task of helping the students put together or "make sense" of the variety of experiences that they receive during the day. Core programs, designed to offer both an opportunity for the application of the special achievements gained in other classes and a stimulation for the exploration through other subject matters of the problems central to students' lives, have been adopted. The guidance program within the school has been given the responsibility of helping the student achieve balance as well as direction in his day-by-day activities. The exploration of means of solving the problem of integration should continue, however. Given a recognition of the problem and the ingenuity of teachers, secondary schools should be able to make many more contributions to this aspect of curriculum design.

*The potentialities of the students* In its December 29, 1945, issue, *School and Society* published a preliminary summary of Bernardine G. Schmidt's investigation of behavior changes in children originally classified as feeble-minded. There was intense interest in this study, since the results appear to be in sharp contrast to the usual professional opinion of the potentialities for education of children classified as feeble-minded. Now the complete report, a monograph of 143 pages, has been published by the American Psy-

chological Association as Number 5, Volume LX of the Psychological Monographs under the title *Changes in Personal, Social and Intellectual Behavior of Children Originally Classified as Feeble-minded*. In a prefatory statement, Miss Schmidt, F. C. Rosecrance, and Robert H. Seashore, members of the examining committee, and John F. Dashiell, editor of the Psychological Monographs, explain:

Where a piece of research produces results which appear to be in sharp contrast to conventional professional opinion, and especially if there is an element of controversy, a scientist might be expected to withhold publication pending a repetition of the research, preferably under independent auspices. In the present case, however, although several such repetitions of this investigation are, we understand, at the point of being initiated, the unusual scope of the experiment, involving some eight years for the collection of the data plus several more for preliminary planning and the subsequent analyses, would entail a delay of many years if publication were to be held up. Because of the desirability of making available the full report of the study for those who may wish to repeat various aspects of it for verification or extension, the undersigned believe it desirable to publish it at this time.

Miss Schmidt describes as follows the major purposes of her study:

(1) The development for feeble-minded adolescents of an educational program which would relieve emotional tensions, provide for social interaction, and develop self-confidence and a feeling of personal worth; and (2) the evaluation of that program in the light of personal, social, and intellectual behavior, during an in-school period while participating in that program, and a post-school period after they had left the special

placement. This behavior, and change in behavior, were measured by performance on standardized tests and in experiential activities, and were evaluated on the basis of paired individual, and equated group, controls.

Experimental and control groups of adolescents classified as feeble-minded and referred to special classes were equated on five variables: (1) chronological age, (2) initial intelligence quotient, (3) number of years of previous school attendance, (4) family socioeconomic status, and (5) initial academic achievement.

The study continued over a period of eight years. During the first three years the children participated in either the experimental or the non-experimental program. During the next five years both groups were followed to determine not only the relative permanence of changes in test performance but also the extent to which social and vocational adjustment took place. Changes in Stanford-Binet intelligence quotients reported by Miss Schmidt are striking. The mean intelligence quotient of the experimental group of sixty-four girls was 55.3 at the beginning of the program and 79.1 eight years later. The control group of sixty-eight girls had an initial mean intelligence quotient of 60.0 and a mean of 56.4 eight years later. Study of nine pairs of twins, with one of the pair acting as a control for the member who was in the experimental group, revealed consistent gains in Stanford-Binet intelligence quotient during the eight-year period for the

member in the experimental group, accompanied by very small changes (many of them decreases rather than increases) for the control member. Similar differences in favor of the experimental group were revealed by data on academic performance; on personal and social adjustment, as measured by tests and inventories and by employment records, marriage history, and participation in community life; and on retention in school. In interpreting these data, Miss Schmidt says:

The multiplicity of factors interacting in the adjustment process makes difficult any determination of causal relationships in the development of social competency. However, evidence here reported has shown a large proportion of the children in this study to have reached a degree of personal, social, and intellectual behavior, and a level of academic and vocational competency, equivalent to that of the average normal adult of years comparable to their age at the close of the investigation, despite the fact that originally these children had been classified as feeble-minded. To the extent that the cases in the study were representative, therefore, it can be concluded that a majority of children originally classified as feeble-minded can grow to be mentally competent, well-adjusted members of a democratic society, if their educational program is so planned to meet their emotional as well as academic needs while in school and to prepare them for social and vocational competency in their post-school years.

This study calls attention to the *potentialities* of education. The belief that a particular classification of a student sets fixed limits on his achievement should clearly be regarded as an assumption subject to

experimental investigation. A necessary, perhaps the crucial, element in such investigations is the development by the teachers themselves of a better concept or "theory" of education. Our past experience with the achievement of students tells us only the kind of achievement that is to be expected when we offer them the kind of education that has characterized the past. The question to be answered is: What happens when we give students a better education? The recorded events of history suggest that the potentialities of the human being are great. Scientific study of education can help identify the conditions under which potentialities may be transformed into achievement.

*Curriculum* "Developing a More Adequate Theory of Curriculum" was the subject of a curriculum conference held at the University of Chicago on October 16 and 17. The purpose of the conference was to examine critically the ideas or generalizations used as basic tools to attack the many problems of curriculum development. One outcome of such an examination, it was hoped, would be the indication of the kinds of research and creative study necessary to insure the gradual and continued development of a more adequate curriculum theory for America's schools.

The papers and the discussions centered on topics such as values and educational objectives, social perspective as the basic orientation of the curricu-

lum, the sequence and hierarchy of ideas in the subject fields, appropriate organizing elements in the curriculum, the design of the curriculum, organizing learning experiences, the theoretical basis for the activity program, assumptions on the nature of curriculum planning, sources of confusion in curriculum theory, and theories of general education in curriculum development.

One of the values of such a conference is that it focuses attention again on what must be the rational approach to education. Teaching may be primarily an art, but education that is as extensive an enterprise as it is in this country cannot be carried on effectively without the development of a set of guiding principles. One obvious requirement is that these principles somehow relate to teaching—to the processes that actually go on in the school. Theory and practice need not be divided by some insurmountable barrier. Study and research, by attending both to the propositions advanced as theory and to the actual processes that represent practice, can lead the way to a better education.

#### SEX EDUCATION

AN IMPORTANT summary of findings regarding sex behavior has been published by Lester A. Kirkendall, director of the Association for Family Living in Chicago, and Mark Fleitzer, teacher of English and social studies in St. James (New York) Union Free School, in the September, 1947, number of the *Clearing House*. The data

cited lead the authors to formulate a number of conclusions, some of which may be contrary to prevalent beliefs. They take the position that there is no choice between giving and not giving sex education; that it is only a question of choosing between sources.

Another choice that parents, the church, or the school may make is when to begin such education. On the basis of the facts reported, the authors conclude that sex education should begin in the early years of childhood rather than be postponed to the period of adolescence. They also point out that the common assumption that discussion of sex questions with adolescents is harmful, since it may awaken an interest and concern not present before, is *not* in keeping with the facts. In conclusion they recommend:

An educational program concerned with helping individuals achieve a satisfactory sex adjustment must be interested in far more than factual information about sex. Basically it must attack the whole problem of emotional maturity, personality development, and social adjustment. Sex is so integrally a part of a total personality adjustment that either the overemphasis or exclusion of sex is an error which distorts the whole situation. Educationally the problem is so to incorporate sex education into the total program of instruction that proper balance and perspective are attained. Terman in his study of 792 married couples concluded that sex was very much out of perspective with other important aspects of adjustment.

The kind of an educational program in which the best help is given in making an adequate sex adjustment is one in which the central concern is improved individual and social adjustment. Courses in mental hy-

giene and individual psychology (whether called by that title or not), or courses in preparation for marriage and family life will eventually be found to be the best vehicles for accomplishing the best kind and the major portion of sex education.

This emphasis on sexual adjustment as a part of total personal and social adjustment reflects Kirkendall and Fleitzer's view that sexual activity is a "normal" characteristic of the individual. The sublimation "theory," which underlies many programs for controlling sexual activity, is questioned by these authors. The facts, they say, indicate that "there is no such thing as complete sublimation of the sex drive."

In commenting on two approaches that the school may take, they write:

The plan of integration of sex-education materials into biology, social studies, physical education and health, home economics, and allied courses is still a sound one. It has never been adopted by any large number of schools, however, and can never accomplish the same valuable objectives which can be attained through a course planned to help pupils attain a better personal adjustment and a better preparation for marriage and family living. In courses such as these, sex is not evaded nor dwelt upon unduly.

Courses of this kind are "taking hold" and their success and the acceptance which they have received from both pupils and parents is proof that satisfactory results can be attained. The next problem is preparation of teachers and materials for use in these courses. Nor do these two requisites need to be insuperable barriers. A respectable number of schools have now found that among the members of their present staffs are persons who are fitted by personality for such instruction and are able to adapt their previous preparation acceptably to the new



assignment. These teachers find available materials. As has been argued before in these columns, continued delay is a betrayal of our educational principles and of youth.

#### TRAFFIC SAFETY FOR TEEN-AGERS

SOME may argue that a traffic safety training program, if it is to reduce the needless loss of life in motor-vehicle accidents, must be primarily a program of adult education in order to reach all drivers. Others, citing that the record of fatalities in motor-vehicle accidents shows a disproportionate number of teen-agers to have been the driver of one or more of the vehicles, argue for emphasis on a program of education for traffic safety that prepares the young adult to secure a driving license. The National Conservation Bureau has announced awards for states in which such courses are established and maintained. The belief that these courses are effective rests on such analyses as:

Last year over 33,500 persons needlessly lost their lives in motor-vehicle accidents. Many of the drivers of the death cars were teen-age students. Yet, where statistics on their records are available, it has been shown that students who have completed driver-education courses have been involved in less than half as many fatal accidents as have a comparable number of youths who have not had this safety training.

Better preparation to become drivers should help. Education for maintenance of driving skills, however, is also necessary.

The Abington High School, Abington, Massachusetts, combines training for youth with "refresher" training for adults of the community. The

adults provide automobiles and volunteer their services in giving students actual practice in driving. Many persons have observed that the teacher often learns more than the student. By enlisting adults of the community as teachers, under the guidance of the school, Abington has capitalized on this fact. The plan has the obvious advantage of providing automobiles for the use of students at no cost to the school. In instituting such a plan, however, the school staff must consider carefully provisions for the safety of students and the legal responsibilities of the school.

#### NEW MATERIALS OF INTEREST TO TEACHERS

*Education in buying* Among new materials which will help some high-school teachers is the report of the Consumer Education Study of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals (Washington, D.C.), with the backing of the National Better Business Bureau, *Consumer Education in Your School*. In these days of inflation, students do not have to be told twice "to shoot for a higher standard of living regardless of what their incomes may be." In this report the developing of "buyman-ship" skills is stressed.

*Available pictures and slides* The Library of Congress has some good collections of prints, photographs, and slides for sale or loan to schools. Teachers of American history have a choice from

three thousand historical prints and photographs. For information, write the Photo Duplication Service, Library of Congress. For an index to the collection of pictures made by the Farm Security Administration between 1935 and 1943, write the Information and Publications Office of the Library. For loans of prints and slides illustrating Latin-American sculpture, painting, architecture, and other arts, write the Photograph Section of the Library.

*Seven rules for thinking* "Pupils need to get practice in solving problems while getting practice in identifying the principles of clear thinking in accord with which reliable conclusions are reached." So writes Roy C. Bryan in *Seven Rules of Clear Thinking*. This interesting work, written for boys and girls of high-school age, is an outgrowth of several years of classroom use in the high school of Western Michigan College at Kalamazoo. The seven rules about which the book is written are as follows:

1. Prevent your feelings from dictating your thinking.
2. Suspend judgment until you are justified in reaching a conclusion.
3. Strive to identify assumptions.
4. Insist on adequate cross-section samples.
5. Beware of analogies.
6. Call for evidence of cause-effect relationships.
7. Organize your thoughts.

The book may be purchased for \$1.25 from Western State High School, Kalamazoo, Michigan.

*Follow-up report on the gifted* Most readers of the *School Review* will be interested in one of the most important "progress reports" of our time—*The Gifted Child Grows Up*, published by Stanford University Press and written by Lewis M. Terman, professor emeritus of psychology at Stanford University, and Mrs. Melita Oden, who has been Dr. Terman's research associate since 1936. The "high I.Q.'s" sampled by Professor Terman have done well to date; whether any men or women of outstanding eminence are in their midst remains to be determined. Of the total group of fourteen hundred, eighty-five are members of college faculties, twenty are listed in *Who's Who in America*, in *American Men of Science*, or in both.

*Source book in American history* More than thirty authors, including Plato, Aristotle, Augustine, Luther, Locke, J. J. Rousseau, Herbart, and Jefferson, contributed to *Three Thousand Years of Educational Wisdom: Selections from Great Documents*, published by the Harvard University Press. Enough of each author is given to distinguish this work from most American source books. The editor, Professor Robert Ulich, of Harvard University, states the purpose of his anthology as follows: "This book . . . is an attempt at general education . . . in the sense of placing ideas of general human significance behind the often chopped-up and atomistic activities of life." Why

should not educators continue their general education in a field closely related to their professional interests?

*American educational traditions* There is an American educational tradition—or, rather, traditions—

worthy of more thoughtful study than it usually gets. Omitting mention of general works, we comment briefly on two recent studies. In his *James Harvey Robinson: Teacher of History*, published by King's Crown Press, Columbia University, Luther V. Hendricks shows how central and significant Robinson was in the development of history-teaching in colleges and high schools. Dorothy McMurry's *Herbartian Contributions to History Instruction in American Elementary Schools* (Teachers College, Columbia University, Contributions to Education, No. 920) treats ably a small phase of an important and amazingly neglected aspect of our educational history.

#### AN IMPORTANT CONTROVERSY

A BRIEF history of the current California controversy over the adoption of *Building America* as supplementary textbook material is presented in the June issue of *Curriculum Digest*, a publication of the San Diego City Schools. Mr. Aaron Sargent, a San Francisco lawyer representing the Sons of the American Revolution, charged that the *Building America* series contains material of a subversive nature and that the members of the Curriculum Commission were engaged

in a plot to indoctrinate California school pupils in the principles of socialistic government. In January of this year, after a number of hearings, the State Board of Education, whose legal responsibilities include the adoption of textbooks, proceeded to adopt the materials that Mr. Sargent had complained about.

Next, the state legislature, in response to a petition prepared by Mr. Sargent, withheld from the educational appropriation the moneys that would be required to print and distribute the *Building America* materials. A legislative hearing was held. Mr. Sargent made his charges. Representatives of several groups, including the California Department of the American Legion and the California League of Women Voters as well as professional educational organizations, denied that their study of the *Building America* materials revealed any support for these charges. Mr. Sargent then took his case to the people by publishing his charges in a pamphlet entitled *The Betrayal of America*. Needless to say, this pamphlet did not include any of the replies to Mr. Sargent's charges made in the legislative hearing.

In commenting on this situation, the editors of *Curriculum Digest* say:

Underlying this vicious attack upon public education is the very important principle of who shall choose the textbooks for use in the public schools of California. The California constitution has placed this important responsibility in the hands of the State Board of Education, whose members are

appointed by the governor and who have usually been chosen from among representative laymen. It further requires that in the adoption of textbooks the State Board must give consideration to the recommendations of the Curriculum Commission, a representative body of professional educators appointed by the state superintendent of public instruction, and confirmed by the State Board. This system of checks and balances is typically American and would seem to offer every possible guaranty that the interests of society and professional education would be safeguarded. The effort to place education in California on such a constitutional basis that it could not become the political football of every changing legislative whim represents a quarter-century of progress.

Whatever may be Mr. Sargent's avowed ultimate purpose, it is clear that the practical effect of his action to date has been to give active support to interests in California who would transfer the control of textbook selection from the constitutional agencies to other agencies more susceptible to legislative and private pressure. Removal of the selection of public-school textbooks from the control of the constitutional educational machinery of the state and placing it in the hands of legislative groups and committees would be a step backward which no educator or thinking citizen could condone. For this reason, all educational groups in California have stood as one in opposing the charges of Mr. Aaron Sargent and his group of supporters.

If such controversies did not raise the fundamental issues outlined by the editors of *Curriculum Digest*, one might be inclined to recall the story of the aging Liberty Leaguer's conversation with the young Harvard man and laugh them off. The old Liberty Leaguer, sitting in his leather chair at the window of his club, began con-

versing with the young Harvard man about the deplorable socialist trends in the nation. They made mutual complaints, and then the old gentleman heatedly remarked that this socialist "plot" had a long history in this country. The Harvard man, thinking of Teddy Roosevelt and "trust-busting," agreed. "Yes, sir," the old gentleman went on, "we made our first mistake when we let the government take over the postal system."

A similar kind of problem faces all schools. The question of who should make particular kinds of decisions must continue to be threshed out, pleasantly if possible, but often on the level of controversy. The attempts to clarify the role of the general public and of small groups within the general public in making decisions about educational policy and practice must be continued.

Developing a concept of the professional character of education gives one point for attack on this problem. The analogy with a public health service or a library service suggests principles. The public helps set the goals of a public health service. It also may bring pressure to bear to outlaw certain ways of attaining these goals. It does not, however, make all the decisions. Instead, the professional competence of the administrators, the technicians, and the doctors guarantees the professional members of the service considerable latitude in choosing the ways in which the purposes will be achieved. Continuous evaluation of the service enables the public

to know whether or not the goals that it has helped set up are being reached.

A school may function within a community in much the same way. The role of all members of the community in helping to formulate major policy is important. It is particularly desirable that members of the community participate in formulating, and give their approval to, the major purposes or objectives of the school. The question of what experiences are the best for helping students develop into the kind of men and women envisioned in these objectives should, however, be regarded as a technical or professional question. To answer such a question, professional competence is called for. The safeguard of a continuous program of evaluation protects the community's interest in the effects of the school and provides the facts that will enable the public to make judicious replacements of the professional staff when the facts show clearly that persons with greater competence are needed to achieve the agreed-upon purposes.

#### OVERSEAS TEACHER-RELIEF FUND

THE Executive Committee of the National Education Association has announced its authorization of a Thanksgiving-to-Christmas campaign for the purpose of collecting funds to be distributed to needy teachers overseas through regularly established, reliable relief organizations, such as C.A.R.E. and the American Red

Cross. The funds are to be collected locally—through local education associations wherever possible—sent to the respective state education associations, and then forwarded to the National Education Association, which will pass it on to the distributing organization. All administrative costs will be carried by the National Education Association in its regular budget, so that every dollar collected will actually be used for relief purposes. This campaign does not in any way replace or conflict with established relief organizations or with relief agencies working through school children and school organizations, whose efforts are now needed as never before.

Teachers in America all know of the great dearth of food, clothing, fuel, books, etc., in the war-devastated lands and realize that their colleagues in those areas are the key people in the vital program of educational reconstruction, without which democracy will make little progress. This can be the best Christmas celebration that the teaching profession has ever experienced, if every teacher in the land will donate at least \$1.00 to this cause—many will wish to give \$5.00, or \$10.00, or \$100.00. Whatever the amount of the contribution, it will help to swell the fund. In localities in which there is no local education association, the school administrators are organizing committees to conduct the campaign.

CHESTER W. HARRIS



## WHO'S WHO FOR DECEMBER

*Authors of news notes and articles*

The news notes in this issue have been prepared by CHESTER W. HARRIS, assistant professor of education at the University of Chicago. LEE O. GARBER, educational relations specialist with the Tennessee Valley Authority, Knoxville, Tennessee, presents a discussion of secondary education for all American youth, in which he makes comparisons between the secondary schools of today and of the past and outlines general characteristics of a new pattern for the curriculum. DOROTHY MERIDETH, teacher in the Laboratory School at the University of Chicago, describes a number of the purposes which, her experience indicates, classroom films can serve. JEROME N. SAMPSON, formerly executive director of the Community Referral Service of Chicago, considers the question of coordinating community guidance and personnel activities, from the viewpoint of the social agencies. JAMES G. ESNEAULT, head of the foreign-language department in East Bakersfield High School, Bakersfield, California,

traces the development of general language courses from 1915 to the present time and suggests factors to be considered in formulating a course of this kind. WILSON H. IVINS, assistant professor of secondary education at Indiana University, reports the results of a nation-wide survey of the status of high-school work programs after the termination of the war. The selected references on higher education have been prepared by NORMAN BURNS, assistant professor of education at the University of Chicago, and JOHN R. MOOK, instructor in education at Pestalozzi-Froebel Teachers College, Chicago, Illinois, and graduate student in education at the University of Chicago.

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## SECONDARY EDUCATION FOR ALL AMERICAN YOUTH

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AT PRESENT, the public's interest in education is at an all-time high. Never at any other period of our educational history has such interest been displayed. This interest is evidenced in a number of ways: (1) by the publication in popular magazines of numerous articles dealing with the current shortage of teachers and their inadequate pay; (2) by the publication in newspapers of news stories about the current critical situation in education, an outstanding example of which is the series of articles by Benjamin Fine in the *New York Times*, published early this year; (3) by the appearance of educators on programs of local, state, and national organizations of various types; (4) by the endorsement and support of a program of federal aid for education by innumerable local, state, and national lay organizations; and (5) by the voting of increased appropriations for education by most, if not all, state legislatures.

This demonstration of interest, coupled with increased appropriations, is not without a behest. It carries a definite mandate, a command to

develop that type of educational system in which the public has confidence—the type it demands and is willing to pay for. This article is concerned with needed changes in one area of public education, the secondary school—changes that are imperative if the confidence and support of the public are to be retained.

The secondary school has long been subject to criticism by educators and laymen alike because of its conservative nature. Many educators connected with secondary schools have recognized the problem and have attempted to do something about it. A few of them have succeeded in pioneering new pathways. On the whole, however, in spite of all the criticisms directed toward it, the secondary school still retains as its main characteristic a more or less traditional curriculum and has changed but little in recent times. Change is long overdue and must come—and at an accelerated rate—if the secondary school is to continue to hold the confidence of the public. The maintenance of the status quo will result in undermining the public's interest in, and support of, secondary education.

THE STATUS OF SECONDARY  
EDUCATION

If one were to inquire into the reasons why the high school occupies the position it does today and why it is subject to frequent vitriolic attacks, he would find the reasons rooted in the history of the institution. The typical secondary school of today is a hostage to the past and bound to the past by tradition. The secondary school originated in a society characterized by class consciousness. For centuries it served the ruling class abroad, and it was transported to America without losing many of its aristocratic characteristics. Even in its metamorphosis from the Latin grammar school to the academy to the high school, it kept, and still retains, vestiges of its aristocratic character. Until comparatively recent times, its main expressed aim was college preparation.

For forty years the old pattern of the high school has been undergoing transformation as a result of a new order of things. Numerous changes that have recently come about in American life are having their effect on public education and are precipitating a crisis in our educational system. The old pattern for secondary education has been broken because of a number of factors: (1) a changed attitude toward mental discipline, (2) the vast accumulation of scientific facts, (3) changes in the social and economic philosophy of the people, and (4) a new constituency which has been forced into the classroom as a result of social and economic changes.

It is at this point that we stand today. The old pattern is broken, and a new one is yet to be cast. Educators and laymen alike realize the need for change. A new philosophy is being mouthed. No longer is a college-preparatory aim accepted as *the* aim for secondary education. Instead, educators openly deny it, though a study of the curriculum of the average high school must lead to the conclusion that its main, and often sole, aim is college preparation. Nevertheless, the old pattern has been broken at last, and this gives hope for a new and better program. No matter how bound to tradition an educational institution may be, it always finds itself, sooner or later, a part of the civilization which it represents. No educational institution can escape for long the responsibility of socializing youth in terms of the ideals and purposes of the social order of which it finds itself a part, especially when it must rely on that social order for its financial support.

Impressive though these criticisms are, some defense of the high school can be made. In the first place, social change came so gradually at the start that it was almost imperceptible, while recently the change has been so rapid that the school has found it difficult to keep abreast. With this change has come a marked increase in enrolment, from 203,000 in 1890 to well over 7,000,000 today. As a result, those persons who are responsible for secondary education have been so busily occupied in expanding the physical aspects of the school—enlarging staffs,

seeking funds, and enlarging housing facilities—that they have been unable to devote their undivided attention to its curricular aspects. Consequently, our curriculum has developed through the process of accretion. New subjects have been added, but, in the absence of sufficient time for careful study, traditional subjects have been retained.

Then, too, these educators have had no blueprint to follow. The present American secondary school is a new type of institution, without a prototype anywhere else in the world. It is still in an experimental stage, engaged in performing a service which no other secondary school in the world has ever dared to attempt. It must, of necessity, chart its own course—a new one—in attempting to provide for all young people of all classes an education beyond the level attained in the elementary school. In this attempt it has made errors, and we must admit that it now has defects. Nevertheless, it has also succeeded in producing a generation of Americans whose intellectual achievements are of no mean order.

An additional defense lies in the fact that the administrators of this school have been without the guidance of that leadership which grows out of long experience. Only recently have they come to realize that they cannot look elsewhere for leadership but must develop it themselves.

One might continue to offer explanations for the present state of confusion in which secondary education finds itself, but little would be accom-

plished by so doing. It is only natural to attempt to find an alibi for a bad situation, but the time has come when educators must face facts squarely and devote their energies to overcoming defects rather than to making apologies. The public is not interested in apologies. It demands an adequate secondary school. A condition exists that must be changed. Change will come, but, if it is to be intelligent change, it will exact its price—much effort. The old pattern is broken. A new one must be cast.

#### THE NEW PATTERN FOR SECONDARY EDUCATION

The nature of this new pattern is of particular importance. It cannot be described in detail, but a number of its general characteristics seem fairly clear.

In the first place, the curriculum of the secondary school must reflect the aims which the institution accepts. This principle appears to be self-evident, but, in practice, it does not always operate. Often the curriculum which is found is one that reflects the old, aristocratic college-preparatory aim—an aim which the institution openly denies. As a result of changing social conditions, the high school today, unlike its predecessor of fifty, or even thirty, years ago, has become a school for all the children of all the people. Approximately 70 per cent of all young people of high-school age are enrolled in school today. Studies made by the American Youth Commission a few years ago indicated that, of this number, approximately 70 per

cent plan to enter professional or semiprofessional fields, although the best research seems to indicate that no more than 12 per cent can be absorbed into these occupations. On the other hand, research has also shown that somewhere between 55 and 70 per cent of all jobs require little or no formal technical training.<sup>1</sup>

From these facts, the conclusion is inescapable that a new type of high-school education is essential and that the old aim, the college-preparatory aim, is outmoded. The majority of high-school pupils neither can, nor will, go to college. They need no curriculum that will prepare them for college. They need a curriculum that will help them to understand life as it is actually experienced. The needs of the minority who will go to college are no different from those of the majority who will not. The same type of education is needed by all; for a curriculum that prepares for life should also prepare for college. All boys and girls must be provided with those educational experiences that will make them intelligent about, and efficient participants in, the social order in which they will live. This view does not neglect the heritage of the past. It provides that the past be used wherever possible as a guide to the present and the future. The past and the future can be joined together in the present in a relationship that will make for the great-

est value to society and to the individual.

Another characteristic, and probably the main one, of this new pattern for secondary education that can already be dimly observed concerns the emphasis which the school should place on general education. By "general education" is meant that education which should be common to all. If the curriculum is to result in preparing youth to meet their responsibilities in a society that is characterized by change, it must consist largely in general education. It must be one that will aid youth in the building of those values that are essential to, and consistent with, a democratic philosophy of life.

Thus, it may be inferred that college-preparatory subjects are not necessarily a part of the general-education program. Certainly, this evaluation holds true with regard to Latin, algebra, and all other specialized courses. Acceptance of this viewpoint does not mean that these subjects should be stricken from the high-school curriculum. It means only that, in no sense of the word, should they be considered part of general education. They are not on the "must" list. They are specialized rather than general and lead in the direction of specialization. There is, however, a certain body of subject matter that is essential to all pupils—one that will aid them in developing those values essential to the democratic philosophy of life. These subjects constitute the program of general education which should be the core of the secondary-

<sup>1</sup> Homer P. Rainey, "Social Factors Affecting General Education," *General Education in the American College*, p. 21. Thirty-eighth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part II. Chicago: Distributed by the University of Chicago Press, 1938.



school curriculum. The core must, of necessity, be thought of as the "constant" aspect of the curriculum. Some few "electives" may be included in the total program, but, to a great extent, individual differences will be cared for through the use of newer and better teaching techniques in a curriculum of "constants" rather than in a curriculum of numerous elective, unrelated courses.

The program of general education must result in the preparation of individuals for participating in those experiences of life which are shared by all persons. Therefore no contemporary issue or problem should be omitted from the training of these young citizens. Courses must be so general that they lend themselves to the inclusion of instruction on all such issues and problems. It is evident that this program of general education is as broad as life itself in a modern society. The program must cover problems of all sorts and types—those of an intimate character as well as those related to the purposes of the total society. Thus, the problem of curriculum-making in the secondary school becomes, largely, one of identifying those common elements in experiences that are shared by all and of selecting materials and procedures that will guarantee to every youth an opportunity to participate in these procedures intelligently.

It must not be thought that general education is concerned only with imparting information, which is but a small part of the problem. General

education is concerned with the development of understandings, attitudes, and appreciations, as well. It aims at individual adjustment and is concerned with everything essential to this goal. As has been stated over and over, we do not know the exact nature of what is to be included in the secondary-school curriculum. We know, however, that the content should concern itself with problems and issues, and we also know that the school cannot anticipate all problems of the future. General education, therefore, must aim at developing individuals who have such a breadth and comprehensiveness of training that they can, and will, solve new problems as they arise. Thus we see that the purpose of general education is not solely to impart knowledge that is essential to the solution of problems now existing but is also to cultivate the ability to solve new problems—in short, to make the individual adaptable. Society is not static. It is in a constant state of flux. The curriculum which will best adjust individuals to this fluxation is one that emphasizes general education rather than the older concept of college preparation.

To be a little more specific, the curriculum in general education must include certain tool subjects. It is a fallacy to believe that the elementary school can give all the instruction necessary in these tools. For example, many secondary-school pupils cannot read. In the past, the high school has been content to solve this problem by showering epithets on the elementary

school. Now it is time for the high school to begin to assume responsibility for continuing instruction in reading. The same could be said of other tool subjects, for example, arithmetic.

Then, too, this curriculum must include such general courses as physical science, in which the pupil is taught about the world in which he lives; biological science, in which he is taught about life on this world, especially man; social science, in which he learns the duties of a member of a community; and the humanities, in which he learns about the nature of man as an individual and the record of man's experiences and ideals. The pupil needs also courses in the arts, which should be concerned with appreciation, as well as with those methods and devices which man has developed for the production of the material aspects of civilization. These are the courses that must be emphasized in any program of general education. It is readily seen that they are as vital for those young people who are contemplating further education in the professions or vocations as they are for those pupils who intend to leave high school.

It is interesting to note that the curriculum, beginning with Grade I and extending through the junior-college years, is largely made up of general education, except for a gap which is noted in the senior high school. The policy of the elementary school has long been to provide general education. Here, the curriculum is one of constants. It has been developed on the concept that it is a curriculum for

all pupils enrolled in the elementary school. As a result, the main changes that have been made in the elementary-school curriculum, over a period of time, have been based on an expanding concept of elementary education. At first, it was thought that general education at this level should consist of tool subjects only. In the beginning these were the three R's. Recently this concept has changed, and the curriculum has expanded to include additional subjects, such as science and social science. A similar trend is also noted in the junior high school, and one sees, on every hand, that an increasing number of colleges and universities are departing from purely academic, or so-called "liberal arts," curriculums in attempting to develop programs of general education, especially in the first two years. This trend is hardly noticeable as yet in the senior high school. Here the philosophy of specialization still finds its stronghold. The program of these years must be changed to conform to a pattern of general education.

#### GENERAL EDUCATION AND VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

This discussion should include a few words concerning the relation of vocational education to general education. The concept of general education which has just been considered is not antagonistic to vocational education. If vocational education is properly conceived, if it is thought of as including those skills and techniques which all pupils should develop, then

it is part of general education. The preparation of young people for a narrow and specialized type of occupational competence is not the function of general education, which must, instead, cultivate a broad range of abilities not in a few, but in all, pupils. This idea has been particularly well stated in a report by the Advisory Committee on Education:

The weight of the evidence collected in the present investigation leads to the conclusion that preparation of a narrow and specific type should not be fostered under a program of vocational education in the public high schools. Modern conditions place a great premium on versatility and adaptability; to encourage in the schools a type of preparation suitable only for narrowly defined jobs is counter to the best interests not only of the pupils but of the economic order. The needs, in so far as the school is concerned, seem to be clearly for the cultivation of a broad range of general skills and abilities that may be of value in a whole related family of occupations. For example, instead of training a boy in the schools to be a highly skilled tinsmith, he might more profitably be given general preparation for the metal-working trades; instead of training for a high degree of skill in cabinet making, he might better be given instruction that would be broadly applicable to all wood-working trades.<sup>2</sup>

<sup>2</sup> John Dale Russell and Associates, *Vocational Education*, pp. 215-16. Prepared for the Advisory Committee on Education, Staff Study No. 8. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1938.

#### CONCLUSION

In conclusion it may be stated that the old pattern for the secondary-school curriculum is broken and that the new pattern cannot be described in terms of particulars, although some of its general characteristics seem obvious. Although it is yet to be developed, the new curriculum will undoubtedly be one that will bring the school into rapport with life about it, as a result of its emphasis on general education. The new curriculum will be a curriculum for all children. It will be concerned primarily with those learnings which are essential to everyone regardless of the place in life which he may be called on to occupy. It will be a curriculum that reflects life—one that draws its material from life. It will be concerned with the problems and issues with which man is constantly faced, and it will attempt to develop well-adjusted, adaptable human beings who can tackle these problems and issues intelligently. It will be the antithesis of a highly specialized curriculum which is designed to prepare the few for further study of a specialized character. In its emphasis on a more or less common curriculum for all, it will not lose its emphasis on individual differences but will provide for them through the use of the newer teaching techniques.

## SOME SUGGESTED USES FOR CLASSROOM FILMS

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IF PROPERLY employed, good classroom films pay rich learning dividends for the time and energy which a teacher must invest in their use. A sizable body of scientific investigation supports this widely accepted dictum. Equally widely accepted, but unfortunately less generally practiced, are certain principles which are basic in the effective use of classroom films.

These principles can be summarized in five statements: (1) The teacher must preview the film to be sure that it presents appropriate material. (2) The pupils must be prepared by being informed of what they are to look for and by being made to realize that they are in a learning, rather than an entertainment, situation. (3) The film must be adequately presented so that the study of it will not be handicapped by poor lighting, fuzzy sound, etc. (4) There must be follow-up procedures in which the pupils react to the film through discussion, writing, or some other form of activity. (5) Evaluation is necessary—evaluation of pupil learning from the film, of the technique through which the film was presented and studied, and of the film itself.

### OBJECTIVES

Admittedly, the teacher who seriously and systematically applies these basic rules is doing a good job in the use of classroom films. He is doing a superior job compared with the more typical instructor who never uses a film because "it's just more trouble than it's worth," or the teacher who orders blindly and shows films without preparation, saying, "I think this film is about Hargreaves, class. Anyway, I know it's about the Industrial Revolution."

Applying the basic rules, however, is only the required minimum in effective use of films. The road to maximum returns from classroom films lies in applying the basic rules through a variety of techniques and for the accomplishment of varied purposes. This article was written to suggest a number of purposes which classroom films may help to fulfil—objectives which have not usually been attacked through films. They are objectives which, if achieved, contribute to effective "reading" of films by the pupils. This general skill should be developed in the classrooms because it is an aid in making the most of an effective

tive learning medium and also because the typical pupil in his adult life will gain some of his information and many of his impressions from the commercial movie theater. Teaching the reading of films is as important in the 1940's as teaching the reading of the newspaper.

The examples which follow illustrate the various purposes for which films may be used. All are drawn from the writer's teaching experience in the Laboratory School of the University of Chicago and in the University High School of the University of Minnesota. Each example involves some phase of the field of social studies, but many of the general principles involved are applicable to the use of films in other areas of the secondary-school curriculum.

*Identifying major points of information.*—Many classroom films lend themselves to direct teaching of information, if the pupils know how to read the films. Secondary-school teachers work to develop in pupils the ability to pick out the main facts in a reading assignment. Similarly, a little specific training in selecting the major facts from a film increases the effectiveness of informational motion pictures and also helps to achieve a learning, rather than an entertainment, situation while the film is being used.

Employing study questions of the type often prepared to guide pupils through a reading assignment is an obvious but useful device. In a unit on Latin America, for example, the film "Schools to the South" (12) was

shown. The pupils were given two questions for which to find answers:

1. What are the major causes of the poor educational conditions in many Latin-American countries? 2. What major social problem is being attacked through the schools, according to this film?

With the room only partially darkened, the pupils were able to make rough notes as they saw the film. After the showing of the film was completed, the pupils took a few minutes to finish their notes before they held a group discussion of the questions. In the discussion, satisfactory answers to the questions were formulated and written on the board.

Another class, with more experience in identifying the major facts given in a film, was given the assignment of outlining the film "Precious Land" (11), as a part of a unit on Japan. Two showings of the film were necessary in this exercise. During the first showing, the pupils made rough notes. While the reel was being re-wound, they studied the facts that they had recorded and decided on appropriate topic headings. Each pupil prepared for the second showing by writing the major topics on a fresh sheet of paper, leaving space for subheadings to be written in as he viewed the film again.

In a unit of work in which the pupils were helping to construct the unit examination, all the informational films that were studied became the basis of multiple-choice items. The pupils were asked to pick out the most important facts presented in the film and to make items involving these



facts. The best items that were turned in were included in the examination, exactly as they were written if they were satisfactorily constructed or with some revision by the teacher if it was needed.

*Drawing comparisons, generalizations, and conclusions.*—Secondary-school pupils are often expected to compare two accounts of the same event and to decide which of the two is more accurate. They are frequently asked to examine discussions which present arguments on both sides of an issue and to draw tentative conclusions. Sometimes they are expected to formulate generalizations from a number of instances. Usually only pamphlets, articles, or books are considered usable sources for these comparisons, generalizations, or conclusions. Actually many classroom films can be used as a source of information for exercises of this kind.

Sometimes the picture gained from a pamphlet or textbooks may be compared with that presented in a film. One senior high school class, for example, was studying about educational opportunities open to American Negroes. The pupils read pamphlets by Edwin Embree, heard reports on the facts presented in two textbooks, and studied statistics from the 1940 Census. Then they studied the film "As Our Boyhood Is" (1). Three questions were posed as guideposts in their study of the film:

What specific contrasts do you see between the "old" and the "new" schools shown in the film? What points of likeness

do you find between the information presented in this film and the information you have obtained from your reading? On what points does the film differ from Embree's book or from other reading you have done?

Each pupil was given a sheet on which space for notes was provided following each question. The class read the questions through, then saw the film. Immediately after the first showing, a brief period of time was provided for note-taking. The film was then run a second time, so that the pupils could check their notes for accuracy and completeness.

In the discussion which followed, the chief emphasis was placed on the comparison of the facts presented in the various reading materials and those portrayed in the film. The total impression given by the film was compared with the general picture gained from reading. One critical pupil, for example, said something like this: "The movie leaves you feeling that everything is all right—that the problem of a good education for Negroes has been taken care of. The book I read certainly made me realize more about the bad things that still exist." Other class members defended the film, pointing out places where inadequate schools were shown. Finally, the pupils attempted to summarize the knowledge that they had gained from various sources about educational opportunities for American Negroes and to draw conclusions with regard to causes of existing inequalities and with regard to possible solutions for them.

Two or more films may be used as bases for comparisons and generalizations. For instance, through the use of four one-reel films, an eleventh-grade class in American history found an interesting approach to the study of the frontier in our national development. Before any reading was done on the topic, the pupils, through recalling their earlier history studies, compiled a list of characteristics of the various frontiers in American history. Such items as "First houses were log cabins" and "Settlers made their own candles" appeared in the heterogeneous listing. Each pupil copied the list and prepared to add to it as the following films were shown, two on each of two successive days: "Early Settlers of New England"(3), "Kentucky Pioneers"(7), "Flatboatmen of the Frontier"(4), and "Pioneers of the Plains"(10).

Besides adding to the list of characteristics of life on a frontier, class members were asked to watch for similarities and differences between conditions on successive frontiers. The pupils took a few notes while the films were being shown and completed their note-taking in intervals provided after each reel. Then came an exercise in making comparisons and generalizations.

Discussion centered on the major problems of frontier living, such as shelter, food, and recreation, as they had been met on successive chronological and geographic frontiers. Similarities were pointed out—the recurring problem of peaceful relations with

the Indians who had been previous inhabitants of the land and the presence of home manufactures which indicated the self-sufficient nature of life on each successive frontier. Differences also were identified—the different types of shelter built by the Kentucky frontiersman and the pioneer of the plains and the different problems encountered in providing food in the two areas. On the bases of the previous discussion and the study of the films, several tentative generalizations regarding frontier life in America were formulated. In later class sessions, these generalizations were tested, and some of them modified, by evidence found in the textbook and reference materials.

*Combating the habit of stereotyped thinking.*—Because of the vivid sensory impressions presented by films, these aids provide one of the best single vehicles for classroom use in combating stereotyped thinking. In a study of problems of intergroup relations, for example, the documentary film "Henry Browne, Farmer"(5) was used for this purpose. The class had discussed the characteristics and dangers of stereotyped thinking. By drawing on their own reactions, on remarks of their friends and parents, and on descriptions which they had read in stories, the group had constructed "conventional stereotypes" of various minority groups. In the course of this project, the commonly held stereotype of the southern rural Negro was defined. In studying the film, the pupils were asked to list

specific things that they saw which ran contrary to the stereotype. One pupil listed these items:

1. The farmer plowed his fields scientifically [contour plowing].
2. He took good care of his equipment.
3. He seemed to own his own land.
4. He worked hard.
5. His family was rather small.
6. He was patriotic (instead of happy-go-lucky).
7. He did not work in the cotton field all day.
8. He had a son in the Air Corps.
9. He appeared to be clean.

Another pupil added these items:

1. Good food—milk and eggs.
2. Clean clothes.
3. Planted peanuts instead of just the cotton which all Negroes are associated with.
4. Son became a flyer, not low ranking in the Army.
5. Fertilized land to keep it in good shape.

The lists revealed the particular stereotypes in which some pupils were thinking but which had not come out in previous discussions. One boy, for example, wrote that the fact that Henry Browne had no still and sold no bootleg whiskey was contrary to the general idea which Americans had of southern rural Negroes. Another pupil was especially impressed because there were only three children in the Browne family. As the lists were discussed, the pupils themselves pointed out that each pupil's items were somewhat different from every other pupil's items and probably reflected the preconceived notion which each individual had in his mind. The pupils also pointed out that it would be in-

correct to picture all Negro farmers in the image of Henry Browne.

It would be foolish to contend that this exercise caused all the pupils to cease thinking in stereotypes, even about the one group pictured in the film. It seemed clear, however, that the discussion which followed study of the film was one of the most effective half-hours of the term, perhaps because a direct attack was made on a stereotype which the pupils could identify clearly in their own minds and because vivid impressions had been presented by the film. Several times, in later discussions, when the problem of stereotyped thinking came into the situation, the pupils made reference to the film "Henry Browne, Farmer" (5).

Another aspect of stereotyped thinking which is commonly encountered among boys and girls is their idea that all Frenchmen, all Germans, or all Russians are alike. Films, such as "Peoples of the Soviet Union" (9) and "How Russians Play" (6), with their presentations of the different physical types and the variety of cultural patterns found in the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics can be used to combat this variety of stereotyped beliefs.

*Analyzing cause-effect relationships.*  
—An important part of critical thinking is the ability to analyze situations to determine cause-and-effect relationships. There are available a number of classroom films which present a picture of a specific situation, and which can be analyzed with reference to

causal factors and the results that follow. One film of this type is "You Can't Eat Tobacco"(13), which depicts the plight of the southern "share-cropping" tobacco farmer. The film gives, either directly or by implication, some of the reasons for existing conditions and suggests remedies.

In preparation for the film, the pupils were instructed to divide their sheets of note paper into three columns bearing these labels: (1) "Existing Conditions," (2) "Causes," and (3) "Suggested Ways of Improving." During the showing of the film, each pupil jotted down the major facts, placing each fact in its appropriate column. Members of the group pooled their notes in a comprehensive listing which was placed on the blackboard. The next step was the drawing of arrows from each statement of cause to the related statement of effect and to the proposal for improvement. Through the group exercise, the nature of cause-effect relationships was clarified, and, at the same time, some specific knowledge of one current socioeconomic problem was gained.

*Identifying and analyzing propaganda devices.*—A study of propaganda techniques in relation to critical thinking has become a standard part of secondary-school programs, whether it is treated in social-studies classes or in English classes. In view of the movie-going habits of all age groups in modern America, the schools have a responsibility for expanding the treatment of propaganda to include sound-film materials. Most films dealing with

current issues or social problems can be used for identification and analysis of persuasion techniques without destroying the other values to be obtained from them.

The film "One World or None"(8) was chosen for use in a class which was studying the need for control of atomic weapons. The pupils were given the double assignment of listing (1) the facts which showed the necessity for controls and (2) devices which helped arouse the pupils' emotions and thus convince them of the point of view urged in the film. The use of funereal music; the sad and sometimes grim tone of voice used by the commentator; the use of death symbols (crosses and skulls); and the explosive sound effects which accompanied parts of the film were listed and discussed as effective persuasion devices. Another film which was subjected to critical analysis by the same group was "The Battle of Russia"(2). In this wartime production, the pupils easily identified the portions in which the various techniques were employed: music keyed to the desired mood, patriotic symbols, testimonials, and picture selection which gave the desired impression of valor and strength on the side of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics and of defeat and dishonor on the part of the Nazis.

The result of a few deliberately planned exercises in identifying persuasion devices was the pupils' spontaneous discussion of any examples of these techniques which they could identify in films shown in the class-

room. Some of the pupils went even further and reported in class examples that they had noticed in films which they had seen in commercial theaters.

#### CONCLUSION

It is obvious that films, like any other type of teaching material, must be selected for the particular job at hand. Many films would not lend themselves to outlining, for example, because they do not present an organized body of information. Some historical films would serve well for an exercise in propaganda analysis, while others that present a detached narrative would not. Often it is possible to work toward the purposes described above at the same time that a film is being shown for motivation, overview, direct teaching, or review. Conscious choice from the wide variety of purposes which films can serve will enrich the learning dividends gained from sound motion pictures.

#### FILM LIST

(Prices Shown Are Rental Rates)

1. "As Our Boyhood Is." 18 minutes, 16-mm., sound, 1943. Educational Film Laboratory Association, \$4.00.
2. "Battle of Russia." 90 minutes, 16-mm., sound. Y.M.C.A. Motion Picture Bureau, \$5.00.
3. "Early Settlers of New England" (Social Studies Series). 11 minutes, 16-mm., sound, 1940. Encyclopaedia Britannica Films, Inc., \$2.50.
4. "Flatboatmen of the Frontier" (History Series). 10 minutes, 16-mm., sound, 1942. Encyclopaedia Britannica Films, Inc., \$2.50.

5. "Henry Browne, Farmer." 10 minutes, 16-mm., sound, 1942. Castle Films.
6. "How Russians Play." 18 minutes, 16-mm., sound, 1946. International Film Bureau, Inc., \$2.50.
7. "Kentucky Pioneers" (History Series). 11 minutes, 16-mm., sound, 1941. Encyclopaedia Britannica Films, Inc., \$2.50.
8. "One World or None." 9 minutes, 16-mm., sound, 1946. International Film Bureau, Inc., \$2.00.
9. "Peoples of the Soviet Union." 33 minutes, 16-mm., sound, 1946. International Film Bureau, Inc., \$5.00.
10. "Pioneers of the Plains" (History Series). 10 minutes, 16-mm., sound, 1942. Encyclopaedia Britannica Films, Inc., \$2.50.
11. "Precious Land: A Story of Farming in Japan." 10 minutes, 16-mm., sound, 1940. Y.M.C.A. Motion Picture Bureau, \$1.25.
12. "Schools to the South." 12 minutes, 16-mm., sound, 1943. Y.M.C.A. Motion Picture Bureau, \$0.50.
13. "You Can't Eat Tobacco." 14 minutes, 16-mm., sound, color, 1943. Educational Film Laboratory Association, \$5.00.

#### ADDRESSES OF DISTRIBUTORS

Castle Films, R.C.A. Building, New York City.  
 Educational Film Laboratory Association, 45 Rockefeller Plaza, New York City.  
 Encyclopaedia Britannica Films, Inc., 20 North Wacker Drive, Chicago 6, Illinois.  
 International Film Bureau, Inc., 84 East Randolph Street, Chicago 1, Illinois.  
 Y.M.C.A. Motion Picture Bureau, National Council of Young Men's Christian Associations, 347 Madison Avenue, New York City.



## CO-ORDINATION OF GUIDANCE AND PERSONNEL ACTIVITIES IN THE COMMUNITY<sup>1</sup>

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AT THE outset it must be indicated that guidance, counseling, and personnel activities take so many forms that not only conferences such as this one, but a series of other devices is sorely needed to achieve mutual understanding, co-operation, and co-ordination between the various parts of a large field. The common elements in all "helping" relations between trained professional personnel and persons with various problems and needs would seem, on the surface, to contain sufficient unifying qualities to bring these activities together. Actually, however, there not only appear to be little co-operation and understanding between these activities but, instead, there are considerable professional competitiveness and "isolationism."

It is trite, but disturbing, to point out that one of the serious weaknesses of our complex society is the growth of either disconnected or poorly articulated specialties. This statement is as true in the realm of the social sciences as it is in the field of medicine, where

the problem has reached the humorous stage. Aside from scattered examples of "mixed" research staffs on certain social problems and the barest token of co-operative or co-ordinated practice in a fragment of the total guidance and counseling field, we seem to be at primitive levels of mutual understanding and integration. If we choose, we can fall back on the comforting rationalization, which has partial validity, that the social sciences and their offshoots are of such relatively recent development that too much should not be expected of them. If this excuse or explanation seems less than adequate, the problem can be pursued in various ways, some of which will be indicated in this paper, that will stress the points at which realistic and tangible movement toward interspeciality relationships might constructively follow present glorification of separateness.

### VARIETY OF TYPES OF COUNSELING AND GUIDANCE

To illustrate the broad variety of types of counseling and guidance, one need only mention these well-known and distinctly separate activities:

<sup>1</sup> A paper read on June 27, 1947, at the eleventh annual Guidance and Personnel Conference at the University of Chicago.

premarital and marital counseling, vocational and educational guidance and counseling, youth counseling and guidance, psychotherapy and psychoanalysis, nondirective counseling, personnel counseling, and social case-work treatment (also sometimes referred to as "counseling"). A further complication of this confusing picture is the fact that persons practicing these counseling activities do so after widely differing professional training and experience and consider themselves basically educators, psychiatrists, psychoanalysts, psychologists, sociologists, or case workers. Physicians, lawyers, and ministers also conceive of themselves as "counselors." Adding still greater confusion is the variety of settings and auspices in which these activities are carried on. Counseling and guidance activities are found in primary and secondary schools, universities, industrial establishments, churches, and in social agencies and institutions. These activities are also practiced independently and in profit-making organizations.

Except in a few social agencies, such as child-guidance clinics, adult psychiatric clinics, family case-work agencies, and a few schools, there has been little attempt to integrate any of the specialized professions in this field. Some primary and secondary schools have made bare beginnings in pulling together professional teachers, psychologists, and case workers into a co-operative professional team in which there is mutual respect, flexible use of skills and competence, and an effective

combined approach. Many strong and well-developed social agencies have brought psychologists, psychiatrists, and case workers together in sound working relations, but, on the whole, the relations between all these professional groups have been, and still are, highly colored and distorted by suspicion, distrust, skepticism, and mutual nonacceptance.

Many psychiatrists whose experience with case workers has been either meager or unsatisfactory are scornful of the possibility that case workers can practice some forms of psychotherapy or that they may have other worthwhile counseling functions. Some psychiatrists and psychiatric social workers tend to regard psychologists as psychometricians and nothing more. Sociologists who have become interested in premarital and marital counseling seem equally annoyed with case workers and psychiatrists, although they may tend to identify themselves to some extent with psychologists. Many clinical psychologists and those psychologists who are now developing nondirective counseling as a therapeutic method seem almost as desirous of freeing themselves from any tie with either psychiatry or psychiatric case work as they are of making a contribution to psychological diagnosis and to therapeutic technique and procedure.

As for teachers and various other professional persons who are functioning in the guidance, counseling, and personnel fields, I suspect that they often feel like saying "a plague on all

your houses" and that they protect themselves from the confusion confounded by picking a little from many parts of the field and going their own ways in what may not be too splendid an isolation.

These are rather blunt statements, which may or may not seem valid or important to the reader, which he may accept in whole or in part or may even reject. Nevertheless, this picture is the backdrop which is, it seems to me, essential to realistic thinking about co-ordination in this field. It is easy, but not fruitful, to pretend that harmony exists where it is barely visible as a goal. It is even simpler to dismiss parts of the whole field as either irrelevant or inapplicable and to cultivate only one's own garden zealously and conscientiously. I would assume that these alternatives, while seductive and satisfying on some counts, cannot really satisfy honest professional persons. Persons with solid training in any of the "pure" or applied social sciences cannot hope either to gain the recognition they merit or to make the social contribution that the community needs from them, unless they are willing to devote time and effort to breaking down the barriers of specialization that they have fostered between themselves or have permitted to develop.

These introductory comments are not meant to imply in any way that organized social work has made any substantial contribution toward the objective of co-ordination and co-

operation between these groups. On the contrary, social workers have perhaps been as defensive as any group in their development of their own somewhat exclusive and excluding approach to human problems.

#### SOCIAL CASE WORK AS A PROFESSION

As is well known, social work and social case work have their modern roots in various charitable and philanthropic activities. The field has been clearly professionalized, in terms of graduate courses of study and systematic organization of knowledge, for only about three decades. The trend toward requiring full graduate training for social workers dates back about fifteen years, and this development is still unfinished.

While this solid professional movement is relatively new, social work has made remarkable strides compared with some of the older professions. First case workers, then group workers, and, more recently, community organizers and research specialists have acquired basic knowledge and well-defined skills in working with human beings and with groups. Gradually social work has broadened its scope and for many years has been reaching out with its services to groups other than those in economic distress.

This latter fact is of major significance in terms of guidance and personnel activities because many people in these fields still regard social workers as nothing more than givers of relief

and tender guardians of the interests of the poor. Hospitals, medical and psychiatric clinics, recreational agencies, and so-called "character-building organizations" have long served people of most economic levels. These social services (when not tax-supported) have required fee payments from the beneficiaries of their programs in accordance with ability to pay. The same pattern may be found in foster-home agencies and in institutions for children and the aged. More recently family case-work agencies, no longer functioning as relief agencies, have begun to experiment with sliding-scale fees for service, thus breaking with the traditional and limited "charity" approach of their programs.

Agencies, such as those mentioned, along with a variety of specialized case-work agencies, have well-trained staffs who are able to offer a great deal of help with problems of personal adjustment to individuals and families. In these agencies the members of the basic staff of "counselors" have excellent training in psychiatric case work and commonly have direct access to psychiatric consultation both for diagnostic help and for treatment recommendations.

Guidance and personnel specialists in the schools, in industry, and in governmental agencies can benefit a great deal from knowing about and using the case-work services of social agencies. This cultivation of understanding and working relations is, of course, a two-way process, and social agencies

also must be more receptive and more aware of their obligation to get better acquainted with the guidance and personnel field.

#### APPROACHES TO COMMUNITY CO-OPERATION

My thesis is simply that case work and guidance and personnel services are inherently, and should be in fact, complementary community services. The problem is how best to achieve this reasonable goal in the face of professional differences in training, differences in emphasis, and the dangerous distance which has grown up between professional groups. Three methods suggest themselves as worth some extraordinary efforts from all the interested fields:

1. Exploration of the possibilities of integration and co-ordination of undergraduate and graduate academic training and of university research.
2. Joint study of co-operative methods, cross-referrals, and the development of mutually acceptable divisions of responsibility between the functional parts of the whole counseling field.
3. Agency-by-agency and service-by-service co-operative planning.

The first of these approaches assumes that psychologists, sociologists, psychiatrists, teachers, and case workers could, on an interdepartmental basis at the graduate level, begin to hammer out the common elements in their respective curriculums and could establish some joint courses and some joint research projects. The field of

counseling conceivably might be a good place to begin. There certainly are some common knowledge and some agreement about the psychological dynamics in human behavior from which all fields might start, to say nothing of the gaps in knowledge which all these professional groups might tackle more fruitfully together than separately. Perhaps the various national and local professional organizations could also be enlisted in this effort.

The second approach might well be implemented through a co-ordinating agency, such as the council of social agencies, or under other auspices if this social-work organization should be considered insufficiently neutral. I suggest the council because it has had considerable experience in promoting co-ordination and in working out mutually accepted and respected divisions of responsibility among agencies.

The staffs of any guidance, personnel, or case-work agency could give

thought to the many facets of their mutual interests and could begin a series of discussions looking toward more thoughtful, less defensive, co-operative relations. The process would be a healthy and useful one for any two organizations that undertook to do an objective job of achieving maximum inter-understanding and maximum inter-organizational flow of ideas, methods, and clientele.

This discussion presupposes that both the guidance and personnel fields and the social agencies want to work together. I cannot speak for either field, but I know that social agencies would welcome a much larger measure of co-ordination and of co-operative relations than now exists. This is the direction along which we ought to go, unless we want to continue to crystallize further a development of personal counseling in which the Cabots barely speak to the Lodges and no one has more than a nodding acquaintance with God.



## THEORY AND PRACTICE IN GENERAL LANGUAGE COURSES 1915-1947

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BORN during the infancy of the junior high school, the general language course grew slowly during the twenties and reached its adolescence during the thirties. Like an adolescent, general language grew incoherently, first in one direction and then another, awkwardly attempting to do too much, often accomplishing little or nothing. Many of its elders frowned on it, while others set about reorienting its growth. As the course approaches maturity, it is well to take stock, to profit by the mistakes of the past, and to formulate a course of action for the future.

### THE BEGINNINGS

Exploration and guidance were two of the motivating forces behind the development of general courses. As a further impetus came the psychologists' advocacy of generalized treatment of subject matter for the early adolescent, instead of an early beginning in specialization. Hence, general courses were intended to give an overview of an entire field and to enable a pupil to discover interests and abilities in the field. As far back as 1915,

Charles H. Judd<sup>1</sup> pointed out the possibilities in language study for such generalized treatment. Calvin O. Davis, in a survey of the schools of Grand Rapids, Michigan, made in 1917, commented on the inflexibility of a program in which no credit is given for less than two years of work and advocated a general course in foreign language in Grades VII and VIII.

General language, though purporting to awaken interest in the field of language, soon became overly concerned with reducing the mortality in beginning foreign-language classes and with discouraging all but the most able pupils from taking a foreign language. Moreover, instead of revealing background material in the whole area of linguistics, general language courses often presented a *mélange* of unrelated materials, with stress on easy samples of foreign languages. Objections to this type of program arose, some persons claiming that it could not be justified on its prognostic selec-

<sup>1</sup> Charles Hubbard Judd, *Psychology of High-School Subjects*, p. 216. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1915.

tive function alone and others that its material had no terminal value. In place of the sampling course, these persons urged a reorientation toward a broad linguistic program which, rather than being selective, would reach everyone, including those pupils who were usually denied the cultural and linguistic benefits associated with a foreign-language course.

#### THE STUDY

In an attempt to give an overview of the development of the general language course, to determine its trends, and to formulate a program of action, the present writer assembled all the materials available to him on the general language question and tabulated them with reference to aims, content, administrative details, available textbooks, and the like. For convenience, the years from 1915 to 1947 were divided into five-year intervals, with the exception of the last period, which covers the years 1940-47. The number of times a given item was mentioned within each interval was totaled, and, where large enough to warrant it, the figures were converted to percentages. The following material is a summation of the findings.

Tabulation of the objectives cited for the general language course revealed that those aims concerned with introducing a foreign language, developing skills in language-learning, and predicting success in it—in other words, objectives associated with a tryout in a language or languages—

enjoyed a great amount of popularity until the period of 1925-29, after which a marked decrease was manifest. The objectives associated with the presentation of material in linguistics, such as the development of language consciousness, learning general principles, revealing the social significance of language for communication, improvement of the vernacular, and many others have increased steadily since 1930, reaching a percentage of 46.8 of all the objectives mentioned during the interval 1940-47. The cultural objectives increased within the general language field, just as in other areas of the curriculum.

According to the tabulation, content follows the same trends as objectives, with certain notable exceptions. Thus, content of a tryout nature followed the same trend as the corresponding objectives and showed a definite decrease in popularity after 1930.

Items of linguistic content followed the same pattern as linguistic objectives but with a much more pronounced increase. After the initial period, 1915-19, linguistic content represented over half the content mentioned and gradually increased to 76 per cent in 1940-47. One detracting factor in this increase is the great variety of material offered under the heading of linguistics as compared with the more limited type of work possible in tryout and cultural courses. The increasing spread of material in offerings is shown by the fact that eleven items mentioned twenty times or more

constituted 81.8 per cent of all linguistic items in the years 1920-24, while, after 1940, these same items represented only 57.5 per cent of the total for linguistic content.

Cultural content, contrary to the trend in corresponding objectives, showed a noticeable decrease, both after the initial period, 1915-19, and during the latest interval, 1940-47. Two reasons are advanced for this decline. (1) The cultural content, formerly included in a general language course, is now being offered in separate courses in foreign cultures, as well as in social-studies classes. (2) The inclusion of more content of a general linguistic nature may serve to reduce the percentages for other types of subject matter.

In the matter of which pupils should take the general language course, two trends are seen. First, 61.2 per cent of the writers who mentioned this phase of the program wanted the course to be required, as against 38.8 per cent in favor of making it elective. The preponderance in favor of general language as a requirement has been especially noticeable since 1940. Second, of those writers favoring general language as an elective, over 75 per cent recommended that no limitation be placed on pupils and that the course be made available even to pupils of lower ability. A high intelligence quotient or superior ability was mentioned as a requirement by 24.3 per cent of the writers, and seven of the nine references suggesting this require-

ment appeared before 1930. These data reflect a change in emphasis from the tryout, selective aim to the broader field of language which has contributions valuable to all pupils.

The textbooks available in the field of general language reveal many of the same tendencies already mentioned. Emphasis on tryout lessons is typified by Hughson and Gostick's *In Foreign Lands*,<sup>2</sup> and by *General Language*, written by Bugbee and others.<sup>3</sup> Outstanding advocates of linguistic material are Cline,<sup>4</sup> Blancké,<sup>5</sup> Lindquist,<sup>6</sup> and Tanner, Lawler, and Riley.<sup>7</sup> Neither the textbook by Cline nor that by Tanner, Lawler, and Riley contains any sampling lessons, while both Blancké and Lindquist state that the tryout aim is secondary and that the lessons should serve mainly comparative purposes, to awaken a language consciousness, and to develop an appreciation of the cul-

<sup>2</sup> Beth Hughson and Oda Gostick, *In Foreign Lands*. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1934.

<sup>3</sup> Lucy M. Bugbee, Elma M. Clark, Paul S. Parsons, and Donald B. Swett, *General Language*. Chicago: Benjamin H. Sanborn & Co., 1937.

<sup>4</sup> E. C. Cline, *Your Language*. New York: D. Appleton & Co., 1930.

<sup>5</sup> Wilton W. Blancké, *General Principles of Language and Introduction to Foreign Language Study*. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1935.

<sup>6</sup> Lilly Lindquist, *General Language: English and Its Foreign Relations*. New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1940.

<sup>7</sup> Rollin H. Tanner, Lillian B. Lawler, and Mary L. Riley, *Adventures in Language*. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1941.

tural contributions of the countries represented by the languages involved.

Among the many administrative details over which much disagreement has prevailed, the question of departmental administration seems to have been resolved in favor of assignment to the foreign-language department, either alone, or in combination with the English department. Correlation with other sections is repeatedly urged. Again, the recommendation that more than one teacher be invited to participate is another manifestation of the correlational trend. If only one teacher is available the Latin teacher is preferred, while instructors in other departments should participate in discussions concerning their fields of specialization.

In regard to the grade level at which the general language course should be presented, Grade VIII predominates in over 50 per cent of the cases. In addition, a trend, apparent since 1935, is that of offering classes in the higher grades, because the material some authors recommend is too mature for junior high school pupils.

The day of the short-unit course is gone; for no course shorter than one semester was observed since 1935. One year is the most common length of the course, while the semester course ranks second. Figures on the number of periods held during a week are limited. The daily class lags behind those meeting twice or three times a week, presumably because of a tend-

ency to neglect mentioning the daily course. Taylor and Tharp<sup>8</sup> found that half the courses given in 1937 were daily courses. Regular credit of some type, usually as an elective, is granted in three-fourths of the schools.

In the estimation of its sponsors, the general language course is ideally suited for use of progressive, life-centered methods, with emphasis on laboratory techniques, democratic organization, and student participation in planning. In addition, the concept of no failing marks in an exploratory course is finding favor.

Although the term "general language" has been criticized as too vague, no other single title has found wide acceptance. "Orientation in Language Arts," "Language-Arts Survey," and "Social Language" are other proposed names.

What outcomes of the general language course have been reported? Early in the history of the course, questions were raised relative to its efficiency in reducing failures and in guiding pupils into foreign-language classes. Such studies as were made of the relative success in foreign-language classes of pupils who had had general language courses and pupils who had not, were inconclusive. The best prognostic results were obtained in schools in which the course was

<sup>8</sup> William M. Taylor and James B. Tharp, "An Analysis and Evaluation of General Language; The Language Arts Survey Course," *Modern Language Journal*, XXII (November, 1937), 83-91.

typical of the particular type of work in foreign language offered in the school concerned. At present there is a crystallizing of the opinion that more than one language as a sample is confusing and pedagogically unsound. The outcomes of the linguistic type of course are harder to measure objectively. Nevertheless, many claims are made, most of them paraphrases of stated objectives. Perhaps with extensive testing of interests, vocabulary, and attitudes, and the employment of recordings of speech, pronunciation, and word usage, some type of objective measurement of linguistic achievement may be attained.

#### SUGGESTIONS FOR GENERAL LANGUAGE COURSES

It would be presumptuous to attempt to set forth a definite program of objectives, content, etc. Many wiser and more experienced persons have hesitated to propose definite criteria for strict adherence. However, on the basis of the foregoing investigation, the writer would like to suggest certain factors to be considered in formulating a general language course and to offer the following basic trend for examination.

From the course which attempts to serve a selective function in weeding out the undesirable, a definite shift has been observed toward an expanding curriculum which undertakes to reach all pupils, to present them with a basic body of knowledge, to develop interest and ability in the basic com-

munication skills, to provide cultural experiences which many pupils would not normally receive, and, only incidentally, to propagandize for foreign-language courses.

Perhaps the primary factor to consider in planning a general language program is the purpose for which the course is intended. If the purpose is to provide a foretaste of a foreign language, the following points deserve consideration:

1. The material presented must be typical of the work in foreign languages in the school in question. It must not be on the play level, and more than introductory, novel work is necessary. It must be of immediate value—each fact must be worth knowing.

2. One language is sufficient. More than one is confusing and contributes nothing to a test of language interest and ability.

3. The tryout course must articulate with the foreign-language program. It must precede the languages in the school system and must be required before one of the foreign languages is elected.

4. It must be at least one semester in length. It may act as the first semester of a foreign-language course if local conditions favor that arrangement.

5. No failing marks should be given, though a pupil may be advised not to select a foreign language for special study.

6. Full credit for the general language course as an elective must be granted.

7. A maximum of life-centered cultural material, as contrasted with "Quiz-Kid" content, must be included.

If the purpose of the course is to improve basic communication skills, that is, to develop language conscious-



ness, the following points merit attention:

1. The content should be calculated to awaken an interest in language per se, to show its importance in the modern world—in propaganda, in advertising, in law. It should try to develop a critical attitude toward, and awareness of, language; to show the relationships between language and the background and ancestry of English; and to develop an appreciation of foreign cultures through comparative linguistics and accompanying intercultural materials.

2. Teaching methods should allow for a wide range of activities and interests, for student participation in planning units of study, and for democratic classroom procedures.

3. Teachers must be well trained and interested in the work. More than one teacher is recommended, and integration of materials with other courses is necessary.

4. The grade level may be higher than the junior high school. Many of the concepts involved are too difficult for comprehension at that age level.

5. The course should preferably be a full year in length.

6. All pupils should be reached and full credit granted.

To function effectively, a democracy depends on an enlightened population. Education must provide the opportunity for youth to realize the democratic ideals of the use of reason, the brotherhood of man, and freedom of the individual. To achieve these goals, our rapidly changing culture requires more training in basic areas, one of the most important of which is the use of language. The ability to think critically; rather than to allow oneself to be influenced by stereotypes, clichés, and emotionally charged concept, is measured by the ability to use language. Moreover, both democratic ideals and our rapidly shrinking, interdependent world require a clear understanding of all peoples and cultures. Intolerance, based on ignorance, has no place in our society. Education must provide the facts and equal opportunity to all persons to develop to their fullest capacity and to learn competence in social living, co-operation, and in the use of reason.

## STATUS OF HIGH-SCHOOL WORK PROGRAMS AFTER WAR TERMINATION

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JUST prior to the war, increased recognition of the values and practicability of work experience and work-study programs organized and administered by high schools was evidenced both by attention in the published literature and by a rapid growth in the number of schools inaugurating work programs. As a result of the manpower shortage during the war, the number of schools operating part-time work and study programs more than doubled. The termination of the war has produced speculation about the future of work programs.

With the assistance of Harl R. Douglass, the author has made a painstaking survey of state departments of education and state vocational directors in order to discover the status of high-school work programs a year and a half after the close of the war. Work experience was limited to experience organized and controlled by the high-school authorities as part of a work program but covered a broad area, including co-operative education.

### THE SURVEY

The two major purposes of this inquiry were to ascertain (1) what the

present status of high-school work programs is in each state and (2) what the present and the expected trends in development of work programs are in each state. To achieve these two purposes, the survey included the following questions:

1. How many high schools maintain work-experience programs for *regularly enrolled* students in each of certain classifications<sup>1</sup> in your state?
2. Have you been able to discern any trend in such programs since the end of the war? If so, what is its nature?
3. What specific effect has the end of the war had on the development of such programs in your state?
4. What do you expect in the future development of such programs?

These questions were asked of all state departments of education and were answered most often by the state directors of vocational education.

Questionnaires containing these and other questions which are not reported here were mailed to all states in late January, 1947. Replies were finally received from all recipients, but, for a variety of reasons, not all of them responded to every question. In general, information was received from all

<sup>1</sup> For classifications, see Table 1.

state departments. Its significance should be weighed accordingly.

Figures showing the number of high schools offering work experience were not available in Indiana. In addition to this exception, no figures were given for the states of Idaho, Rhode Island, and Wisconsin because, according to reports from the state authorities, there are no high-school work pro-

The data which follow have been presented in the simplest form possible because of the nature of the distribution of replies to the questionnaires. Because of space limitations, data from states have been grouped according to the geographical limits of the various high-school accrediting associations rather than given individually. In this grouping, the North Cen-

TABLE 1  
NUMBER OF HIGH SCHOOLS IN ACCREDITING-ASSOCIATION AREAS OFFERING  
VARIOUS TYPES OF WORK EXPERIENCE IN 1947

Association	Diversified Occupations	Co-operative Distributive Occupations	Other Co-operative Programs*	High-School Camps	Community Schools	All Types
New England†.....	3	33	21	.....	1	58
Middle States.....	7	109	35	29	63	243
North Central (East).....	198	120	62	11	.....	391
North Central (West).....	70	56	9	1	.....	136
Southern.....	246	187	25	237	227	922
Western (California).....	2	5	5	1	.....	13
Northwestern.....	38	35	23	.....	.....	96
Total.....	564	545	180	279	291	1,859

\* Co-operative office practice, veterans' programs, trade and industry.

† Connecticut reports some co-operative distributive programs, the number of which is unavailable.

grams, as such, in those states. However, these three states made comments and replies to certain questions because work experience is offered there, although not in regular high-school programs. Recent information received from an official of the Connecticut State Department of Education indicated that the end of the war had virtually eliminated organized high-school work programs in that state but that some programs of co-operative distributive education, the number of which was unavailable, were still in operation.

tral Association was subdivided into eastern and western sections along the boundaries of Minnesota, Iowa, Missouri, and Arkansas.

The number of high schools, from each of the accrediting-association areas, which offer work experience are presented in Table 1. Some of the southern states reported that, although there were many community school programs and high-school camp programs, the exact figures were not available. This fact would make the total numbers of these two types of programs somewhat larger than those

shown. Similarly, other state departments indicated that a few programs of these types were operating in their state high schools but that the exact numbers were either unknown or unavailable. Three states signified that the figures reported were the best available but that they might not be exact.

high schools in the nine states offered programs of diversified occupations. In 1934, these same states had only 7 high schools offering the plan, and no more than 166 schools with this type of program could be counted in the whole country. Furthermore, in the states studied, the number of high schools offering diversified occupa-

TABLE 2

NUMBER OF SCHOOLS IN SOUTHEASTERN STATES OFFERING DIVERSIFIED OCCUPATIONS (CO-OPERATIVE DISTRIBUTIVE OCCUPATIONS) IN 1938-39 AND 1947

STATE	1938-39*	1947 (THIS SURVEY)		
	Diversified Occupations	Diversified Occupations	Distributive Occupations	Total
Kentucky.....	12	.....	11	11
Virginia.....	20	21	30	51
Tennessee.....	4	22	19	41
North Carolina.....	11	40	16	56
South Carolina.....	32	50†	23	73†
Mississippi.....	29	17	12	29
Alabama.....	29	52	18	70
Georgia.....	19	25	15	40
Florida.....	17	31‡	.....	31
Total (9 states)....	173	258	144	402

\* Reported by Alonzo D. Kornegay and Harl R. Douglass (see footnote below).

† Includes twenty high-school veterans' programs.

‡ Includes twelve co-operative-distributive occupations from Florida.

As far as the writer knows, no data similar to these can be found in the literature of high-school work experience. As shown in Table 2, comparisons can be made, however, with the nine southeastern states studied by Kornegay and Douglass<sup>2</sup> in 1938-39. These investigators found that 173

tions had more than quadrupled between 1936-37 and 1938-39. They concluded that further growth could be expected. Kornegay and Douglass used the term "diversified occupations" to cover all work-experience programs of a co-operative nature, and examination of the occupations offered at that time reveals that they counted as diversified occupations many programs which are at present termed "co-operative distributive occupa-

<sup>2</sup> Alonzo D. Kornegay and Harl R. Douglass, "Diversified Occupation Plans in the Schools of the Southeast," *High School Journal*, XXIV (April, 1941), 177-83.

tions." In the tabular comparison of numbers of schools offering work experience of these two types, this fact should be considered.

From the data presented in Table 2, it is clear that, if only those programs

has been from 166 schools in 1934-35 to 1,859 in 1947, or about tenfold. This figure is not particularly significant however, since the George-Deen Act of 1936 has exerted more influence on this growth than any other single

TABLE 3  
OPINIONS OF STATE DEPARTMENTS OF EDUCATION ON TRENDS IN WORK-EXPERIENCE  
PROGRAMS IN HIGH SCHOOLS CLASSIFIED GEOGRAPHICALLY ACCORDING TO  
HIGH-SCHOOL ACCREDITING ASSOCIATIONS

Response	New Eng- land	Middle States	North Central (East)	North Central (West)	South- ern	Western (Calif- ornia)	North- western	Total
Trend noted:								
Increase of interest in co- operative education.....	1	.....	3	2	1	.....	.....	7
Increase of interest in di- versified occupations.....	3	.....	3	2	1	.....	.....	9
Increase of interest in office practice (co-operative).....	.....	1	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1
End-of-war effect:								
Decline in number of pro- grams.....	.....	1	1	.....	2	.....	1	5
Growth stopped.....	.....	1	.....	1	1	.....	.....	3
Program growth accelerated.	3	1	4	7	5	1	2	23
Future expectations:								
Decline in number of pro- grams.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1	1
Rapid growth in number of programs.....	1	.....	5	2	2	.....	2	12
Slow growth in number of programs.....	3	3	1	7	7	1	1	23
Little change in number of programs.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1	.....	1	2

which are strictly diversified occupations are considered, there has been approximately a 50 per cent growth in numbers of high schools offering these programs in the nine states in the past decade. If co-operative distributive programs are added, the growth becomes approximately 132 per cent. Similarly, if the Kornegay and Douglass figures and those of the present survey are accurate, growth nationally

factor. Nationally, work-experience programs have probably quadrupled in the past decade.

#### THE FUTURE OF WORK-EXPERIENCE PROGRAMS

The growth in numbers of work-experience programs has been fairly obvious to many educators, but what of the future? Common sentiment has held that the reduction in employment



opportunities occasioned by the ending of the war would produce a sharp decline in the numbers of high-school work programs. Although it may be too early to determine trends, Table 3 shows what state departments have observed and what they look for in the future. From a study of Table 3 and from comments accompanying the questionnaires, the following trends or observations become clear:

1. Many state departments of education report a growing interest in co-operative education plans in general and in diversified occupations, specifically in co-operative distributive occupations and co-operative office-practice programs.

2. A large majority of states report that the end of the war has been followed by either a slight or a rapid growth in the number of high-school work programs.

3. A large majority of states report a belief in the future growth (slow or rapid) in numbers of high-school work programs.

4. A few states have noted stoppage of growth or decline in the number of programs following the end of the war.

5. Only one state expects persistent decline in the number of programs in

the future; only two expect little change.

6. Fourteen states report a serious shortage of funds and competent personnel, particularly co-ordinators, as serious limitations to work-experience development.

In addition to the foregoing findings, observation and consideration of untabulated comments have suggested the following remarks:

1. There seems to be little agreement as yet on a standard terminology for educational work-experience programs—particularly for different types of programs.

2. Many state departments of education have less exact information about the distribution, nature, or organization of certain types of high-school work programs within their states than seems desirable.

3. Enough high schools in the country now offer varying types of work experience to make serious study of the field worth while.

4. The extremely high percentage of response from the states to this survey probably indicates the serious interest and purpose on the part of state departments of education in developing high-school work experience.

## SELECTED REFERENCES ON HIGHER EDUCATION<sup>1</sup>

NORMAN BURNS

*University of Chicago*

JOHN R. MOOK

*Pestalozzi-Froebel Teachers College, Chicago, Illinois*

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THIS list of references represents a selection from titles related to higher education that have come to the attention of the compilers between July 1, 1946, and June 30, 1947. As in previous lists, selection has necessarily been made along somewhat arbitrary lines because space does not permit inclusion of all titles that might be worthy of attention. Most monographs, books, and pamphlets have been included, with the exception of annual reports, yearbooks and proceedings of associations regularly devoted to problems of higher education, and institutional histories.

Selection among articles has been limited to those published in professional journals during the year, and the choice has been based chiefly on the significance of the contribution to new knowledge; by no means, however, could all the worthy articles of this type be included. As a general

principle, the list omits articles that provide only a résumé of material available elsewhere. Most articles that are merely discussions or presentations of personal opinion and news notes and papers describing practices in a single institution have also been omitted.

677. *The Administration of Higher Institutions under Changing Conditions.* Proceedings of the Institute for Administrative Officers of Higher Institutions, Vol. XIX. Compiled and edited by Norman Burns. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1947. Pp. vi+92.

Presents a discussion of the problems encountered in the administration of institutions of higher learning under changing conditions. The book presents this discussion around four major topics: "The Changing Scene in Higher Education," "Problems of Control and General Administration," "Problems of Internal Administration," and "Problems of Faculty Organization."

678. BAHM, ARCHIE J. "A Proposed College Curriculum," *American Association of University Professors Bulletin*, XXXII (Autumn, 1946), 545-50.

Submits a brief and clearly defined plan for a curriculum based on a counseling program, an extra-academic program, and an academic program of lower and upper divisions.

<sup>1</sup> See also Item 33 (Chambers) in the list of selected references appearing in the January, 1947, number of the *School Review*, Item 390 (Bloom) and Item 397 (Crawford and Burnham) in the May, 1947, number, and Item 668 (Fine) in the November, 1947, number of the same journal.

679. BECK, HUBERT PARK. *Men Who Control Our Universities*. New York: King's Crown Press, 1947. Pp. x+230.

Reports a study of data, gathered from questionnaire and from published sources, which includes occupation, income, education, political preference, religious affiliation, and other information about the 727 members of the boards of trustees of thirty institutions belonging to the Association of American Universities in 1934 and 1935. Points out that the composition of the boards would seem to be satisfactory from the standpoint of the social and political conservative but would be judged unsatisfactory from certain other points of view.

680. BRETT, AXEL. "A Vocational Program for the Arts College," *Journal of Higher Education*, XVII (December, 1946), 481-84.

Gives a brief analysis of the elementary steps necessary for a vocational program in a liberal arts college. These steps are providing information about jobs, applying vocational usefulness as one criterion in adding and deleting courses, and the appointment of a trained vocational adviser.

681. BROWN, FRANCIS J. "Long-Range Problems of Higher Education Faced by the President's Commission," *American Association of University Professors Bulletin*, XXXII (Winter, 1946), 621-30.

Identifies the five areas in which problems of higher education lie: (1) its role in democratic life and international relations, (2) equalization of educational opportunity, (3) educational organization, (4) financing higher education, and (5) faculty personnel.

682. BRUMBAUGH, A. J. "Federal Government and Higher Education," *Journal of the Association of Collegiate Registrars*, XXI (July, 1946), 433-43.

Reviews the scope of the federal government's relation to education, outlines subjects presented to the Seventy-ninth Congress dealing with education, and asks and answers questions pertinent to further par-

ticipation in education by the federal government.

683. CARLETON, WILLIAM G. "A Social-Science Comprehensive," *Journal of Higher Education*, XVIII (March, 1947), 128-34, 170.

Describes and evaluates a social-science comprehensive course which has been taught at the University of Florida for the past twelve years and which prepares the student to classify, evaluate, and understand the writings of our leading journalists on current issues.

684. CARMICHAEL, LEONARD. "Federal Aid for College Students," *Association of American Colleges Bulletin*, XXXIII (March, 1947), 86-95.

Proposes a national scholarship program for the ablest youth of the nation in order to obtain the highly trained professional personnel needed.

685. CHAMBERS, M. M. "College and Tax Collector," *Journal of Higher Education*, XVII (November, 1946), 424-28. Reports nine decisions of higher courts in eight states involving tax exemption of institutions of higher education. Notes that straws in the wind in 1945 did not all indicate a single direction but that narrowing of exemptions occurred in Oklahoma and Kentucky.

686. COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY, COMMITTEE ON COLLEGE PLANS. *A College Program in Action*. New York: Columbia University Press, 1946. Pp. viii+176.

Reports the study, by the Committee on College Plans of the present state of "health" of Columbia College and suggests means of bringing about greater co-ordination between declared principles and procedures for realizing them. Reviews briefly the development of the present program, going back to 1919 when the first of the orientation courses, "Contemporary Civilization," was introduced. Deals more with organization and practical accomplishment than with educational theories. Devotes approximately one-half the report to a description of the courses which make up the present program.

687. CONANT, JAMES B. "Education beyond the High School," *Association of American Colleges Bulletin*, XXXIII (March, 1947), 14-24.

Sees vocational training as a function of the high school and a two year post-high-school institution and professional education as a function of the university.

688. *Co-operation in General Education. A Final Report of the Executive Committee of the Co-operative Study in General Education.* Washington: American Council on Education, 1947. Pp. xviii+240.

Reports on the background of over-all planning and thinking which went into the Co-operative Study carried on in nineteen colleges from 1939 through 1944, the methods by which the individual projects were selected and developed, and the "structure within which a number of educational philosophies could co-operate with mutual profit." Also describes the major projects undertaken in the humanities, social studies, science, and personnel and reports the committee's conclusions.

689. COPP, MARIE T. "Foreign Area Courses in the Small College," *American Association of University Professors Bulletin*, XXXII (Autumn, 1946), 562-67.

Offers suggestions about the value, content, and methods for presentation of foreign-area courses, based on the experience of the author in teaching a course of this kind in a small college.

690. COREY, STEPHEN M. "The Current College Controversy," *Association of American Colleges Bulletin*, XXXIII (March, 1947), 175-88.

Examines the major points of agreement and disagreement between "content-centered" and "student-centered" programs and concludes that the "child-centered" program is more nearly in harmony with the way people learn.

691. CUSHING, RICHARD J., D.D. "Religion in Liberal Arts Education," *Association of American Colleges Bulletin*, XXXIII (March, 1947), 25-35.

The author believes that the separation of organized church and state is being overplayed. He contends that, although these organizations are separated as institutions, they are blended within the personality of the individual. He deplores the secularization of the schools and advocates a closer moral unity as necessary to human unity, which is essential to bringing the people of the world together. He sees religion as the only force which can provide this moral unity.

692. DANA, ELLIS HUNTINGTON. "Why College Trustees?" *Journal of Higher Education*, XVIII (May, 1947), 259-62, 279-80.

Considers the responsibilities of college trustees and their usefulness to the college. Makes practical suggestions about the selection of trustees and a program designed to make the greatest use of their services.

693. DICKASON, DONALD E. "Labor Relations on the Campus," *Association of American Colleges Bulletin*, XXXII (October, 1946), 419-22.

Presents the view that simple justice requires the college to treat its employees as well as does business for profit and warns that colleges must meet fair employment standards voluntarily or labor unions will force them to do so.

694. DIEDERICH, PAUL B. "The Measurement of Skill in Writing," *School Review*, LIV (December, 1946), 584-92.

Considers the validity of the essay test as a measure of ability to write, sets up criteria for judging the quality of essay writing, and suggests procedures for avoiding errors which are the known bases of common skepticism regarding validity and objectivity of essay examinations.

695. DIXON, J. C. "Everybody Advises the Veteran," *Journal of the American Association of Collegiate Registrars*, XXI (July, 1946), 475-94.

Warns that all too often the veteran is a sort of human shuttlecock, batted back and forth from one agency to another, and suggests that the Veterans Administration

and the colleges are the agencies best qualified to give the veteran student counsel and guidance.

696. DONAHUE, WILMA T., and ELDERSVELD, WILMA. "Vocational Problems of Undergraduate University Women," *Journal of Higher Education*, XVIII (April, 1947), 194-200.

Reports a questionnaire study of 1,496 women at the University of Michigan in the spring of 1943, which showed that 48 per cent of the Freshmen, 61 per cent of the Sophomores, and 82 per cent of the Juniors had chosen vocational goals. Also reports other information pertinent to the problems of vocational choice.

697. DRESSEL, PAUL L. "The Use of the USAFI General Educational Development Tests," *Journal of the American Association of Collegiate Registrars*, XXII (April, 1947), 287-92.

Gives a picture of general practice with regard to general educational development tests and the specific practices at Michigan State College.

698. DUNKEL, HAROLD BAKER. *General Education in the Humanities*. The Co-operative Study in General Education. Washington: American Council on Education, 1947. Pp. xx+322.

Reports the work and findings of the Co-operative Study in the humanities which was intended as a survey not merely of what was being done but of what ought to be done. Describes the initial planning and the projects which centered in the exploration of students' beliefs about general goals of life, religious concepts, literary fiction, and art. Gives a summarizing overview. Includes an appendix of inventories and check lists used in the study and an exploration of their validity and reliability.

699. ERSKINE, JOHN. "The Humanities in the New College Program," *Journal of Higher Education*, XVIII (May, 1947), 227-34.

Points out that the objectives of the humanities in education have been reached when the student learns to take the point of

view of other men easily, intelligently, and sympathetically. Shows how the contents of various subjects may be made to contribute to this objective.

700. FACULTY WIFE. "The Forgotten Woman," *American Association of University Professors Bulletin*, XXXII (Autumn, 1946), 514-17.

Paints a realistic word picture of the trials and frustrations of the wife and family of a poorly paid college teacher. Accuses college presidents of cultivating the conditions described by the wilful practice of depressing salaries to the lowest possible competitive level.

701. *Fellowship Program for Teachers from the Other American Republics*. Washington: United States Office of Education, 1946. Pp. iv+68.

Presents in specific terms some of the detailed steps aimed at developing international understanding through education.

702. FISHER, EDGAR J. "Foreign Students on the Campus," *Journal of the American Association of Collegiate Registrars*, XXI (July, 1946), 543-58.

Predicts that the present twelve thousand foreign students on our campuses will increase to forty thousand. Discusses evaluation of credentials and placement of the student at the proper academic level and other problems relative to his proper guidance and adjustment.

703. GREENOUGH, WILLIAM C. "Survivor Benefit Plans for College Staff Members," *Association of American Colleges Bulletin*, XXXIII (May, 1947), 403-10.

Analyzes the problem of providing for survivors of a staff member who dies in service and explains various types of collective or group insurance which may aid in solving it.

704. HIGGINS, RUTH L. "The Functions of the Academic Dean," *Association of American Colleges Bulletin*, XXXIII (May, 1947), 393-99.

Summarizes confidential information supplied by 161 deans giving varied informa-



tion, such as age, training, experience, authority granted them, the problems they face, and the work they do.

705. *Higher Education in Maryland*. A Report of a Survey by the American Council on Education with Recommendations of the Maryland Commission on Higher Education. Washington: American Council on Education, 1947. Pp. xix+384.

Surveys the general social and economic needs for higher education, the present institutional pattern, methods of public control, and conditions within the state-supported institutions in Maryland. Estimates the physical plant needs. Outlines a pattern of junior-college organization and proposes a junior-college policy. Submits an over-all plan for institutional units needed. Recommends adoption of certain policies and specified plans for the future based on the needs found in the survey.

706. HIMSTEAD, RALPH E., VISSCHER, MAURICE B., and SLICHTER, SUMNER H. "A Symposium on the Economic Status of the Profession," *American Association of University Professors Bulletin*, XXXII (Autumn, 1946), 425-42.

Attacks the chronic problem of low economic status and examines its causes. Suggests that strikes may become unavoidable but that more practicable schemes for improvement may be worked out.

707. HOFF, CHARLES. "Trends of Enrolment, Fees, and Salaries in 141 Colleges and Universities," *School and Society*, LXIV (October 5, 1946), 243-45.

Finds general increase in enrolments, fees, and salaries in member institutions of the Central Association of University and College Business Officers. Finds the increase in fees is especially noticeable in private institutions. Concludes that increased funds are necessary to defray increased costs and that increased fees are, therefore, an equitable solution since they place the added burden equally on the beneficiaries.

708. HOOK, SIDNEY. *Education for Modern Man*. New York: Dial Press, 1946. Pp. ix+238.

Criticizes, from the viewpoint of the experimentalist, the various approaches toward the ends of education, its skills and contents, and methods and materials. Outlines an experimentalist program for education and discusses vocational education and the good teacher. Includes as an appendix "A Critical Appraisal of the St. John's College Curriculum," reprinted from the *New Reader*, May 26, 1944, and June 4, 1944.

709. HUTCHINS, ROBERT M. "The Issues in Education: 1946," *Educational Record*, XXVII (July, 1946), 365-75.

Foresees that drastic changes will be necessary in education in order to match the revolution which is being brought about by the release of atomic energy and sees need for a new type of teacher who is not a narrow specialist. Suggests as a curriculum the teachings of the great thinkers of the past, the effects of which are civilizing, until someone offers a better basis for education. Maintains that adult education is the area most urgently in need of attention.

710. HUTCHINS, ROBERT M. "The Administrator," *Journal of Higher Education*, XVII (November, 1946), 395-407.

Maintains that the most difficult problems of the administrator concern the ends, rather than the means, of education and that his minimum qualifications are courage, fortitude, justice, and practical wisdom. Warns against the administrator's becoming a mere officeholder. Recommends the scheme of training outlined by Plato as a theoretical guide for developing good administrators.

711. HUTSON, PERCIVAL W. "The Association: A Forum on Higher Education," *American Association of University Professors Bulletin*, XXXII (Autumn, 1946), 417-24.

Calls on the local chapters of the American Association of University Professors to become forums for learning about, interpreting, and evaluating, ideas in higher educa-

tion, as a means of restoring faculty influence in the functioning of the institution. Suggests specific current problems for discussion.

712. INGRAHAM, MARK H. "Social Security and the Colleges," *Association of American Colleges Bulletin*, XXXIII (March, 1947), 135-41.

Points out several advantages to be gained through including colleges in the social-security and unemployment-compensation systems.

713. IRISH, MARIAN D. "Academic Revolution," *American Association of University Professors Bulletin*, XXXII (Autumn, 1946), 472-84.

Reviews the steps by which the teachers of political science have moved from theoretical and bookish methods of teaching and research to a practical approach, which includes internship in governmental offices.

714. JENKINS, MARTIN D. "The Availability of Higher Education for Negroes in the Southern States," *Journal of Negro Education*, XVI (Summer, 1947), 459-73.

Uses data from the United States Office of Education to show the inequality of opportunity for higher education for Negroes in the Southern states. Notes that private institutions carry a disproportionately heavy share of the higher education of the Negro population and that Negro colleges are inferior as indicated by accrediting agencies and by lack of various types of curriculums common in the white colleges. Suggests practical steps to improve the situation.

715. JOHNSON, ROY IVAN. *Explorations in General Education*. New York: Harper & Bros., 1947. Pp. x+262.

Presents a detailed study of various aspects of the program at Stephens College, organized into the following chapters: "Backgrounds and Viewpoints," "Survey of the Research Program," "A Basic Course in the Humanities," "Education for Marriage," "Training for Civic Leadership," "Communications: A Program of Basic Training in English," "Clinical Techniques in Education," and "Extra-Class Life."

716. KAPLAN, LOUIS. "The Scholar in an Impoverished World of Books," *American Association of University Professors Bulletin*, XXXII (Winter, 1946), 631-35.

Recommends the use of micro-cards, on one of which a 250-page book can be reproduced, as a means of providing for scholars access to books which, in spite of our extensive library facilities, are too often unavailable.

717. KIRKCONNELL, WATSON, and WOODHOUSE, A. S. P. *The Humanities in Canada*. Ottawa, Canada: Humanities Research Council of Canada (166 Marlborough Avenue), 1947. Pp. 288.

Reports an intensive survey of the humanities in Canada begun in 1944 by the Humanities Research Council with the support of the Rockefeller Foundation. Makes use of data collected by five sets of detailed questionnaires sent to (1) university and college presidents, (2) deans and registrars, (3) heads of departments, (4) librarians, and (5) all individual scholars in the humanities. Information obtained by questionnaire was supplemented by observation during visits to the institutions surveyed. The book includes a "Select Bibliography on Education, with Special Emphasis on Higher Education in Canada" and a "Condensed Partial List of Publications and Works in Progress, Active Scholars in the Humanities in Canada, 1947."

718. KNOX, JOHN B. "The College President as Personnel Executive," *Association of American Colleges Bulletin*, XXXIII (May, 1947), 376-80.

A tabulation of replies from sixty-six colleges indicates that personnel work is distributed among various college offices, with the president taking practically no responsibility except for employment of the faculty.

719. LAND, WILLIAM G. "The Functional College Library," *Journal of Higher Education*, XVIII (February, 1947), 90-94.

Sees danger in the present preoccupation with the administrative function of the li-

brary and neglect of its advisory instruction function. Examines the objectives of both functions and suggests ways of giving each its proper emphasis.

720. LIND, MELVA. "The College Dormitory as an Emerging Force in the New Education," *Association of American Colleges Bulletin*, XXXII (December, 1946), 529-38.

Discusses various aspects of the college dormitory's contributions to the education of the student, as seen by the residence head of a women's dormitory.

721. LOVE, L. L. "Performance of Veterans," *Journal of Higher Education*, XVIII (February, 1947), 95-100.

Reports a study of performance of veterans at Ohio State University. The data support the practice of admitting veterans without high-school diplomas on the basis of General Educational Development Tests.

722. MALLON, WILFRED M., S. J. "New Ways to Unchanging Values," *North Central Association Quarterly*, XXI (January, 1947), 292-96.

An abbreviated summary of the Report of the Committee on Postwar Education previously published in the April, 1946, number of the *North Central Association Quarterly*. Finds that most colleges of the Association are moving forward in various areas, such as defining objectives, entrance requirements, programs of studies, community relationships, and building programs, but are taking a backward step in reviving the worst features of competitive athletics of pre-war years.

723. MATHEWSON, ROBERT H. "Educational Problems of Veterans—and Other Civilians," *Journal of the American Association of Collegiate Registrars*, XXI (July, 1946), 462-74.

Treats the problems of the veteran and other students from the standpoint of the students' attitudes, the admissions policy of the college and its objectives, counseling, and curriculum offerings. Makes proposals for future development.

724. MATTHEW, ROBERT JOHN, FOR THE COMMISSION ON IMPLICATIONS OF ARMED SERVICES EDUCATIONAL PROGRAMS. *Language and Area Studies in the Armed Services*. Washington: American Council on Education, 1947. Pp. xx+212.

Reports the findings of the Commission on Implications of the Armed Services Educational Programs which was begun in 1945; describes the language and area programs, the military-government and administration programs, and the civil-affairs training program; and makes a report on the current effects in colleges and schools, including the University of Chicago language investigation. Maintains that the armed-services programs went far in establishing (1) the validity of the oral approach to language study for practical purposes, (2) the fruitfulness of concentration on the study of an area, and (3) the fact that certain educational gains are achieved by the intensive study of area and language in a combined program. Includes, as an appendix, an extensive bibliography of general references on language and area studies.

725. MOYNIHAN, JAMES F. "Student Counseling in Catholic Education," *Journal of Higher Education*, XVIII (May, 1947), 254-58.

Points out that the present emphasis on recognizing the total personality in guidance supports religious guidance and discusses principles on which a program of religious guidance may be built.

726. PALMER, ARCHIE M. "Research and Patent Policies," *School and Society*, LXV (May 10, 1947), 345-46.

Raises several questions about the effect that college and university research programs and the policies of patenting discoveries will have on the future course of higher education.

727. PEARSON, GAYNOR. "Nationalism in the College Curriculum," *School and Society*, LXV (January 11, 1947), 19-22.

Reports a study of the 1945-46 catalogues of 150 institutions of higher learning for

evidences of nationalism, as shown by (1) the scope of courses in American literature and (2) the development of majors in American civilization. Finds some evidences of an appreciation of a distinctly American culture.

728. RECK, W. EMERSON. *Public Relations*. New York: Harper & Bros., 1946. Pp. xiv + 286.

Outlines eleven major steps for implementing a program of public relations, based on ten principles which are assumed as fundamental. Describes elements of programs reported as successful on various campuses. Indicates ways in which staff members, alumni, the curriculum, research projects, campus life, and special events may be made to contribute to the program.

729. REDFIELD, ROBERT. "Race and Religion in Selective Admission," *Journal of the American Association of Collegiate Registrars*, XXI (July, 1946), 527-42.

Analyzes the various aspects of discrimination in admission practiced by colleges. Sees in discrimination the certain promotion of race hatred and refutes the argument that the colleges are helpless to act in reducing discriminatory practices.

730. RICHARDSON, ORVIN T. "Changes in Semester Hour and Subject Matter Requirements for the Bachelor's Degree in Liberal Arts Colleges, 1890-1940," *Journal of the American Association of Collegiate Registrars*, XXII (April, 1947), 328-33.

From a study of the catalogue offerings of 105 liberal arts colleges from 1890 to 1940, the author presents tabulated data showing a decrease in prescribed courses ranging from 95 per cent in mathematics to 29 per cent in English and other trends pertaining to semester-hour and course requirements.

731. ROTERUS, VICTOR. "Urban Laboratory for Social-Science Research," *School and Society*, LXV (May 17, 1947), 365-66.

Describes an interdepartmental project inaugurated in the fall of 1946 by the University of Michigan in co-operation with

the city of Flint to provide training of graduate students in research and, as an outgrowth of that research, in community service.

732. RUSSELL, JOHN DALE. "Army University Study Centers Abroad," *Journal of the American Association of Collegiate Registrars*, XXI (July, 1946), 559-79.

Describes the plan for the army universities, tells how it was put into action, evaluates its faculty as superior to 97 per cent of the North Central institutions, and maintains that much that was learned should be carried over into civilian institutions.

733. SCHLICHTER, SUMNER H. "What Has Happened to Professors' Salaries since 1940," *American Association of University Professors Bulletin*, XXXII (Winter, 1946), 718-23.

Furnishes tabulated evidence which shows that in two-thirds of eighty-eight colleges studied, the increase in minimum salary of professors was less than 25 per cent as against a rise in living costs of 50 per cent. Submits a program for action to correct the condition.

734. SEASHORE, CARL E. "The Religion of the Educated Person," *Journal of Higher Education*, XVIII (February, 1947), 71-76.

Follows the psychological growth of the individual through a lifetime of religious experience. Finds that the educated person's religion is a way of life in which he is engrossed in living here and now, with a devotion to the beautiful in relation to the highest ends in life. Notes that the individual's progress in religious development parallels his progress in learning.

735. SNYDER, HAROLD E. "The Reconstruction of Higher Education in the War-devastated Countries," *Association of American Colleges Bulletin*, XXXIII (March, 1947), 157-66.

Reports on the conditions, progress in reconstruction, and present and future needs of universities in war-torn countries. Indicates the types of assistance which American colleges and universities can render.

736. STEWART, ELIZABETH D. "Post-College Achievement of Veterans of World War I Enrolled in the University of Colorado," *School Review*, LIV (December, 1946), 593-97.  
Reports a study of the effects of the rehabilitation program conducted at the University of Colorado from 1919 to 1926 under provisions of Act Public 178.
737. TEAD, ORDWAY. *Equalizing Educational Opportunities beyond the Secondary School*. The Inglis Lecture, 1947. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1947. Pp. 54.  
Sets forth the need for a rethinking of the purposes, scope, and conduct of higher education in the light of changing conditions in American society. Advocates federal aid to higher institutions, a system of federal scholarships, the development of junior colleges, and other means for the democratization of educational opportunities on the post-high-school level.
738. WALPOLE, HUGH R. "How Much English Must a Foreign Student Know?" *School Review*, LV (April, 1947), 228-32.  
Convinced that the majority of foreign students who are enrolled in American colleges are seriously handicapped by linguistic difficulties, this author advocates the use of an English proficiency examination in admitting foreign students to higher institutions in this country.
739. WALTERS, RAYMOND. "Statistics of Attendance in American Universities and Colleges, 1946," *School and Society*, LXIV (December 21, 1946), 428-38.  
Presents a statistical summary which shows the number of full-time and part-time students enrolled in 668 approved four-year colleges and universities, as of November 1, 1946. Gives a table showing the enrolment in each of the large universities in categories of full-time, part-time, and non-veteran students.
740. WALTERS, RAYMOND. "Analysis of 1946 Attendance, Thirty Representative Universities," *School and Society*, LXV (February 22, 1947), 129-34.  
A continuation of the report on attendance in 668 universities and colleges which appeared in the December 21, 1946, number of *School and Society*.
741. WARE, CAROLINE. *Labor Education in Universities*. New York: American Labor Education Service, Inc. (1776 Broadway), 1946. Pp. 138.  
Describes the ways in which universities are seeking to meet the educational needs of labor.
742. WHEELWRIGHT, D. STERLING. "Music in Campus Living," *Association of American Colleges Bulletin*, XXXII (December, 1946), 547-59.  
Views recent trends in development of music programs designed to reach all students and outlines briefly the approaches being tried in this area by a few colleges.
743. WHITE, HELEN WALKER. "Counseling Women Students," *Journal of Higher Education*, XVIII (June, 1947), 312-16, 337-38.  
Discusses the merits of various types of personnel-counseling structures found at fourteen women's residence colleges. Finds that most of these colleges have outgrown their present counseling practices, suggests certain considerations for setting up new plans, and concludes that new research is badly needed.
744. WILLKIE, H. F. "Industry and the Scientific Method," *Journal of Higher Education*, XVII (December, 1946), 477-80.  
Deplores the fact that advertising has often developed demands by the public for the frivolous and ridiculous. Calls for a change in industrial research from purely selfish motives to a search for truth in the pure sciences, in history, in the social sciences and in the liberal arts. Believes industry should co-operate with higher education wherever the interests of both education and industry coincide.



745. WILSON, M. EMETT. "An Obsolescent Degree," *Journal of Higher Education*, XVII (October, 1946), 344-46.

Calls the Bachelor of Music degree a fad, notes that it is on the way back from specialization toward generalization, and reviews the reasons for this trend. Suggests changes by which the Bachelor of Music degree will eventually be displaced by an even more highly specialized course for professional musicians only and by the Bachelor of Arts degree for the general student of music.

746. WISEMAN, CLINTON R. "College-Entrance Credits of Graduates of South Dakota High Schools," *School Review*, LV (January, 1947), 38-44.

Presents an analysis of the trends in entrance credits in science and mathematics of graduates of South Dakota high schools who were admitted to the South Dakota State College of Agriculture and Mechanic

Arts during the period extending from 1922 to 1942.

747. WOODBURN, L. S. "The College Budget," *Journal of Higher Education*, XVIII (January, 1947), 7-12, 55.

Sees the budget as an instrument of personnel policy which can be effective only after a sound practice of evaluating teachers has been devised. Discusses various bases for evaluating services of teachers.

748. WRIGHT, BENJAMIN F. "General Education in the Colleges," *North Central Association Quarterly*, XXI (October, 1946), 170-76.

Discusses the need for general education, objects to block survey courses and to the division of the college program into two years of general education and two years of specialized education, and holds that general education should extend throughout the college course.

## EDUCATIONAL WRITINGS



### REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTES

JOHN S. BRUBACHER, *A History of the Problems of Education*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1947. Pp. xiv+688. \$4.00.

In the Preface of his latest book, *A History of the Problems of Education*, Brubacher raises the question whether another general history of education is justified. He answers his own question by saying that such a history would be justified only if new source material had become available or a new form of organization had become desirable. He continues: "The present study partakes of both these purposes but aims especially to give a distinctly new organization to the field of the history of education" (p. vii).

Brubacher has used the topical form in so extreme a manner that he actually has succeeded in presenting his subject in a new and original light. Instead of the usual chronological method, in which the first chapters deal with antiquity and the latter chapters with the present time, he has selected seventeen problems and written a chapter on each. In the case of "Methods of Instruction" and "Curriculum," he has written two chapters on each subject.

The resulting effect is like a series of essays on major problems in education, each of which can be read independently and with adequate meaning. This reviewer has usually been somewhat bored by the repetitions that generally occur when topical treatment is used in general history textbooks, but Brubacher has somehow avoided this defect. One reason may be that he has selected a rather large quantity of dynamic problems; another may be a personal interest on the part of this reviewer in the problems of edu-

cation. One reason is certainly the skill with which the author sticks to the point of his single problem. Brubacher, who is a professor of educational history and philosophy at Yale University, has the unusual ability of making his cross-references and other extensions seem to be just right for giving sufficient breadth to his consideration of the problem and yet not so numerous as to encumber the clarity with which he presents the issue. Incidentally, it is as a problem, and as an issue, that Brubacher presents his material in each chapter. While the author is clearly recognized as a believer in democracy, in freedom, and in the pursuit of progress, he is almost tantalizing at times in the way he leaves a problem as a problem—as something still to be "worked out."

Brubacher has divided his subject into the following chapters: "Educational Aims," "Politics and Education," "Nationalism and Education," "Economic Influences on Education," "Philosophy of Education," "Educational Psychology," "Methods of Instruction," "Curriculum," "Religious and Moral Education," "Formal and Informal Education," "Elementary Education," "Secondary Education," "Higher Education," "Professional Education of Teachers," "Public and Private Education," "Educational Administration and Supervision," and "The School and Progress." In each of these chapters, Brubacher begins with ancient Greece or Egypt and traces the way in which the problems were handled in Rome, in Judea, and during the Middle Ages. The bulk of each chapter is devoted to the modern aspects of the problem, however. Only seldom does he refer to material outside of

Western civilization. One interesting feature is the emphasis on past and present religious influences on many phases of education.

The chapters on "Educational Psychology," "Secondary Education," and "Higher Education" seem especially good, but that may be due to the reviewer's personal interest in these areas. The book is well illustrated and is stimulating in form and content. There is an excellently annotated bibliography on educational history in general and on the subject of each chapter.

The book was read with the conscious intent of selecting the stronger and weaker chapters. Now that it is finished, this selection seems a difficult task. If the writer were recommending to an interested beginner a stimulating overview of any problem in education, he would suggest the particular chapter in this book. Whether this volume will be widely used as a textbook in courses in the history of education is a question. It seems different from the usual textbook in the field. The use of this book would require that the instructor recast his notes and extend his own reading. The desirability of this revision of teaching the course is also a nice problem in education.

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RICHARD D. MOSIER, *Making the American Mind: Social and Moral Ideas in the McGuffey Readers*. New York: King's Crown Press, Columbia University, 1947. Pp. vi+208. \$3.00.

From the Declaration of Independence, which Jefferson intended to be "an expression of the American mind," to our own day, many writers have sought to express and, in that expression, to influence our political, social, and ethical values. Not the least influential of such attempts was the series of

McGuffey readers, of which more than 122,000,000 copies were sold between 1836 and 1920. In his study of the content of the McGuffey readers, Richard D. Mosier seeks to answer the following questions:

What attitudes, interests, values, and ideas did the compilers and editors of the McGuffey readers have the eye to see and the will to make known? What were the social and moral foundations of those attitudes, interests, values, and ideas? [P. 178.]

Mosier answers the first of these questions brilliantly. He shows that, in making choices from the several strands of the American heritage, the compilers of the McGuffey readers were desirous that economic individualism and the acquisitive instinct should "be properly balanced with appropriate manifestations of a uniform system of manners and morals . . . that by this means the rough democracy of coonskin and log cabin be displaced by a more stable culture in which property could be protected by the principles of law and justice" (pp. 158-59). The "plea for a return to the past, for the security of long-established institutions, and for a religious basis of society led to a further identification of the McGuffey readers with the Hamiltonian-Federalist-Whig tradition in politics" (p. 31). While exonerating the compilers of any charge of conscious partisanship, Mosier maintains that in their selections "all the basic ideas of the great conservative and religious synthesis were there, and there was nothing else in the readers which could subtract substantially from the conservative cause" (p. 97). He suggests that this "remarkable correspondence between the basic ideas of the conservative defense and those of the McGuffey readers" (p. 98) was not so "remarkable" after all, as textbooks cannot be expected "to make common cause with radicals and progressives" (p. 98), the *Chicago Tribune* to the contrary, notwithstanding, and that "strict neutrality in such basic ideas is well-nigh impossible" (p. 98). Of course the makers of the readers

could have tried to compile an anthology which would have included other strands of American thought, but such an attempt would have promoted controversy and critical thinking to an extent not harmonious with the current objectives of the common school. Besides, such an anthology would probably have been a dismal commercial failure!

The McGuffey readers were also patriotic, without being chauvinistic, and were proudly conscious of an American mission, under God, to promote human betterment. On the moral and ethical side they achieved "the complete integration of Christian and middle-class ideals" (p. 123). "The McGuffey readers accepted the premise that the Christian [*sic*] virtues of thrift, labor, industry, honesty, punctuality, and good will carried men to the successes which daily could be witnessed by the humblest man" (p. 122). Among the social virtues which they stressed were temperance, kindness to others, modesty, and obedience.

In his answer to the second and more difficult question—the source of the basic ideational pattern of the McGuffey readers—Mosier makes a real, though less completely satisfying, contribution. He shows the similarity of elements of this pattern to Calvinistic doctrines, particularly to the later Calvinistic development of the theory of election in connection with the doctrine of stewardship. Politically he traces the line back from Webster through Marshall, Hamilton, and others of the Founding Fathers (excluding Jefferson and Paine) to Blackstone, Locke, and Harrington. With his main argument, the reviewer finds no fault, save such imperfections as are inevitable when one is dealing broadly with thought-patterns of great complexity. Mosier naturally defines the conflicting political traditions in terms of Hamilton and Jefferson and, in doing so, it seems to the reviewer, understates the conservative side of Jefferson and his essential Americanism. In several places the term "Jacobin" is used in a setting to

which it is not appropriate. Other elements in the making of the Constitution, besides the economic interest, might legitimately have been stressed.

The reviewer would have liked to have had an answer to a third question: "What conditions in the education and environment of the makers of the McGuffey readers led their compilers to make the selections which they did?" In other words, the pattern of the readers and the main sources of their thought have been clearly brought out; one would like something on the actual process of transmission. It would also be interesting to read a careful analysis indicating the changes in emphases from one revision to another, or, if changes did not take place between 1836 and 1920, to have such amazing consistency explained. Mr. Mosier has scope for a future work which could be relatively definitive on the relation of the McGuffey readers to their total cultural setting.

*Making the American Mind* is well written, and its physical makeup is a credit to the King's Crown Press. It will be of interest primarily to students of the development of our educational system and to other persons who are interested in our cultural history. Though not of immediate "practical" usefulness to teachers and administrators, it should clarify their conceptions of the relations of the aims and materials of the schools to the larger educational process of inculcating in the young the values of a particular culture. Sometimes the reading of a monograph that is close to the sources of thought is of much greater value intellectually than the study of a more comprehensive textbook. Despite its minor blemishes, *Making the American Mind* deserves to be read widely and thoughtfully. Out of its reading should come a more critical awareness of the assumptions in the realm of values which undergird the textbooks and other school materials of our own day.

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*A Basic Text for Guidance Workers.* Edited by CLIFFORD E. ERICKSON. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1947. Pp. x+566. \$4.25.

There has been no dearth of literature on guidance. Many books on guidance have been published in recent years, and numerous articles on this subject have appeared in our various educational journals. However, most of this material is not well suited to serve the student of guidance or the guidance worker as an adequate textbook or for reference work; for much of it either treats only one, or a limited number, of aspects of the entire guidance program or presents a defense of a particular view of guidance. *A Basic Text for Guidance Workers* has been published with the specific purpose of serving as a fundamental course in guidance, as a helpful book for all teachers interested in learning more about guidance services, and as a beginning reference work for counselors.

The volume is the product of the collaboration of twenty authorities and specialists in the field of guidance. Serving as editor is Clifford E. Erickson, director of the Institute of Counseling, Testing, and Guidance, and professor of education at Michigan State College. Erickson is also the contributor of the introductory chapter, which indicates the scope and role of guidance services. Richard H. Dresher, vocational analyst in the Department of Placement and Guidance, Detroit, Michigan, describes the use of tests in learning about pupils. Eva Pring, dean of the Oak Park (Illinois) High School, describes the contribution of classroom teachers. Among the other contributors are found L. J. Schloerb, director of the Bureau of Occupational Research of the Chicago public schools; Glenn E. Smith, director of the Guidance Services, Missouri State Department of Education; and W. R. Baller, professor of educational psychology at the University of Nebraska.

Although not divided into specific parts, the general plan of the book is readily dis-

cernible. The first part is introductory and explains the role of guidance services and the use of basic growth concepts in the program of guidance. The second part describes guidance techniques, and the third part deals with the guidance program in action. Illustrative of the topics treated in the third section are: "Therapeutic Counseling," "Helping Pupils Plan Their Programs," "Helping Pupils with Their Problems," and "The Contributions of Classroom Teachers." The closing section of the book contains chapters on the problem of in-service training for guidance, organizing the guidance program, and sources of information and assistance.

As would be expected, this book manifests the characteristics common to volumes built up from the contributions of a number of authors. There is not always a natural transition from one chapter to the next. The reader is somewhat conscious of changes in method of presentation. There is, on the other hand, evidence that these faults have been modified by careful preplanning and capable editing. Besides, the book has gained as a result of being the product of many specialists in the field. Since each author has been carefully selected on the basis of his qualification in the particular area of guidance which he discusses, one immediately places a high degree of confidence in his recommendations.

Two particularly valuable features of the book merit special mention: (1) The book does more than give lip service to the principle that guidance activities are a regular part of the everyday activities of every teacher. It gives specific suggestions and instructions for the teacher who desires to assume his responsibilities in the guidance program. (2) This treatise consistently recognizes and emphasizes the significance for guidance of the principles of child growth and development.

The book is intended to be a basic textbook for guidance workers. It is well suited to that purpose. Because it gives a broad survey of the field, it will serve admirably as



a textbook for a course in orientation to guidance. It is a valuable book also for the teacher who is interested in learning more about guidance, particularly because it places so much emphasis on the role of the teacher and because it carefully describes how he may carry out his function. Its

wealth of information makes it an excellent reference book for the shelf of every educator.

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### CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

#### METHOD, HISTORY, THEORY, AND PRACTICE

"*Arithmetic 1947.*" Papers Presented at the Second Annual Conference on Arithmetic Held at the University of Chicago, June 30, July 1 and 2, 1947. Compiled and edited by G. T. BUSWELL. Supplementary Educational Monographs, No. 63. Chicago 37: University of Chicago Press, 1947. Pp. vi+74. \$1.50.

BODE, BOYD H.; FREEMAN, DOUGLAS SOUTHALL; COMPTON, ARTHUR H.; VAN DUSEN, HENRY P.; HUTCHINS, ROBERT M.; and TEAD, ORDWAY. *Modern Education and Human Values*. Pitcairn-Crabbe Foundation Lecture Series, Vol. I. Pittsburgh: University of Pittsburgh Press, 1947. Pp. xii+166. \$3.00.

BUCKINGHAM, BURDETTE R. *Elementary Arithmetic: Its Meaning and Practice*. Boston 17: Ginn & Co., 1947. Pp. viii+744. \$4.50.

CARMICHAEL, LEONARD, and DEARBORN, WALTER F. *Reading and Visual Fatigue*. Boston 16: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1947. Pp. xiv+484. \$5.00.

CHAFEE, ZECHARIAH, JR. *Government and Mass Communications*. A Report from the Commission on Freedom of the Press. Vol. I, pp. xviii+468; Vol. II, pp. vi+469-830. Chicago 37: University of Chicago Press, 1947. \$7.50 a set.

FARGO, LUCILE F. *The Library in the School*. Chicago: American Library Association, 1947 (fourth edition). Pp. xiv+406. \$4.00.

KIELY, EDMOND R. *Surveying Instruments: Their History and Classroom Use*. Nineteenth Yearbook, National Council of Teachers of Mathematics. New York 27: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College. Columbia University, 1947. Pp. xiv+412.

*Planning the Modern Language Lesson*. Edited by WINTHROP H. RICE. Syracuse, New York: Published for the National Federation of Modern Language Teachers by Syracuse University Press, 1946. Pp. viii+192. \$1.00.

*Promoting Personal and Social Development through Reading*. Compiled and edited by WILLIAM S. GRAY. Proceedings of the Annual Conference on Reading Held at the University of Chicago, Vol. IX. Supplementary Educational Monographs, No. 64. Chicago 37: University of Chicago Press, 1947. Pp. viii+236. \$2.00.

SCOTT, W. J. *Reading, Film and Radio Tastes of High School Boys and Girls*. Educational Research Series No. 28, New Zealand Council for Educational Research. Christchurch, New Zealand: Whitcombe & Tombs, Ltd., 1947. Pp. 208.

SHORE, MAURICE J. *Soviet Education: Its Psychology and Philosophy*. New York 16: Philosophical Library, 1947. Pp. xxii+346. \$7.50.

SUTHERLAND, ETHEL. *One-Step Problem Patterns and Their Relation to Problem Solving in Arithmetic*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 925. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers

College, Columbia University, 1947. Pp. 170. \$2.35.

*Teaching Aeronautics in High Schools: A Study of Methods, Principles, and Measurements.* Prepared for the Civil Aeronautics Administration and the American Council on Education. New York 18: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1947. Pp. xii+420. \$3.50.

WRINKLE, WILLIAM L. *Improving Marking and Reporting Practices in Elementary and Secondary Schools.* New York 16: Rinehart & Co., Inc., 1947. Pp. 120. \$2.00.

#### BOOKS FOR HIGH-SCHOOL TEACHERS AND PUPILS

CARR, WILLIAM G. *One World in the Making: The United Nations.* Boston 16: Ginn & Co., 1947 (second edition). Pp. vi+114. \$1.20.

COCHRANE, ROY. *Number Fact Check Sheet, Grades 5-8.* Los Angeles 28: California Test Bureau, 1947.

LANTERMAN, ALICE, and SHEAFF, VIRGINIA. *Your City and You: The Story of Kansas City.* Kansas City, Missouri: Board of Education, 1947. Pp. viii+360.

*1947-48 Annotated List of Books for Supplementary Reading (Kindergarten-Grade 9).* Edited by DOROTHY KAY CADWALLADER. New York 7: Children's Reading Service, 1947. Pp. 80.

*Our Air Age: A General High School Course on Aviation.* Unit I, Community Problems and Aviation. Prepared by the STAFF OF THE BUREAU OF AVIATION EDUCATION. Sacramento 14: California State Department of Education, 1947. Pp. iv+20.

ROSENBERGER, MARJORIE. *Mark My Words.* Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York: World Book Co., 1947. Pp. ii+110. \$0.64.

SLOAN, HAROLD S. *The American Way: Farming in America.* New York 16: Harper & Bros., 1947. Pp. xii+242.

#### PUBLICATIONS IN PAMPHLET FORM

*Education for Citizenship.* Review of Educational Research, Vol. XVII, No. 4. Washington 6: American Educational Research Association, 1947. Pp. 253-300. \$1.00.

*Committee of European Economic Co-operation: Vol. I, General Report, Paris, September 21, 1947.* Department of State, Publication 2930, European Series 28. Washington 25: Government Printing Office, 1947. Pp. vi+138. \$0.30.

"The General Assembly." Background Paper No. 16, Research Section, Department of Public Information. Lake Success, New York: United Nations, Department of Public Information, 1947. Pp. 15 (mimeographed).

*General Education Board Annual Report 1946.* New York: General Education Board (49 West Forty-ninth Street), 1947. Pp. xx+116.

*Physiology and Pathology of the Newborn: Bibliography of Material for the Period 1930-1940.* Compiled by A. N. ANTONOV. Monographs of the Society for Research in Child Development, Serial No. 41, 1945, Vol. X, No. 2. Washington 25: Society for Research in Child Development, National Research Council, 1947. Pp. x+218.

*Report of the Proceedings and Addresses of the Forty-fourth Annual Meeting, Boston, Massachusetts, April 8, 9, 10, 1947.* National Catholic Educational Association Bulletin, Vol. XLIV, No. 1. Washington 5: National Catholic Educational Association, 1947. Pp. 586.

RIDENOUR, NINA, in collaboration with ISABEL JOHNSON. *Some Special Problems of Children Aged Two to Five Years: When a Child Hurts Other Children*, pp. 8, \$0.10; *When a Child Is Destructive*, pp. 12, \$0.10; *When a Child Uses Bad Language*, pp. 6, \$0.10; *When a Child Won't Share*, pp. 6, \$0.10; *When a Child Still Sucks His Thumb*, pp. 8, \$0.10; *When a Child Still Wets*, pp. 10, \$0.10; *When a Child Masturbates*, pp. 8, \$0.10; *When a Child Has*

- Fears*, pp. 12, \$0.10. New York 10: New York City Committee on Mental Hygiene (105 East Twenty-second Street), 1947.
- Second Annual Report to the Board of Governors for the Year Ended June 30 (Including Lending and Borrowing Operations to August 10), 1947*. Washington: International Bank for Reconstruction and Development, 1947. Pp. 40.
- THAL, HELEN M. *Careers for Youth in Life Insurance*. New York 17: Educational Division, Institute of Life Insurance, 1947. Pp. 72. \$0.25.
- UNESCO and You: *Questions and Answers on the How, What, and Why of Your Share in UNESCO—Together with a Six-Point Program for Individual Action*. Prepared at the Secretariat of the United States National Commission for UNESCO, Department of State. Department of State Publication 2904. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1947. Pp. vi+42. \$0.15.
- The U.S. and the I.L.O.* A pamphlet prepared for the use of social studies teachers in the United States. Washington 6: International Labor Office (734 Jackson Place, N.W.), 1947. Pp. 4.
- WEINMAN, CONSTANCE. *Bibliography on Audio-visual Instructional Materials for Teachers in the Elementary School*. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1947. Pp. 30. \$0.50.
- What Teachers See*. Photographed by LEWIS HENRY KOPLIK, M.D.; prepared under the general direction of GEORGE M. WHEATLEY, M.D., with the Guidance of a Subcommittee of the Advisory Educational Group consisting of CLAIR E. TURNER (chairman), JULIA WADE ABBOT, and CHARL O. WILLIAMS. New York: Metropolitan Life Insurance Co. Pp. 32.
- WILBURN, D. BANKS. *Arithmetic: Using a Ten in Subtraction*. Educational Service Publications, No. 5. Cedar Falls, Iowa: Iowa State Teachers College, 1947. Pp. 10. \$0.10.
- WINSTON, SANFORD. *Leadership in War and Peace*. Special Publication 1. Raleigh, North Carolina: Agricultural Experiment Station of the North Carolina State College of Agriculture and Engineering, 1947. Pp. 142+Schedule.
- WOOD, WILLARD M. *Speech Correction for Parents and Teachers*. Watertown, New York: Watertown Press, 1947. Pp. 114.
- YAHRAES, HERBERT. *Make Your Town Safe!* Public Affairs Pamphlet No. 133. New York 16: Public Affairs Committee, Inc., 1947. Pp. 32. \$0.20.
- UNITED STATES OFFICE OF EDUCATION:  
Bulletin No. 10, 1947—*Education in the Dominican Republic* by GLADYS L. POTTER and CAMERON D. EBAUGH. Pp. vi+34. \$0.15.  
*Leadership in Elementary Education*. Elementary Education Division Conference Report, June 12-14, 1947. Pp. 18.

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